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ABSTRACT

The development of the student as person and as group or community member became a major theme of educational innovation during the 1960s. Previously, most educators had sought to make a sharp distinction between intellectual and personal/social development, assigning the first to the schools, the latter to home and community. This distinction has been abandoned by many educational innovators who contend that the development of such attributes as positive self-concepts, self-management, interests, values, and interpersonal competencies is at least as important in the education of the individual as the development of intellectual skills and knowledge. There has also been a fuller realization that intellectual and emotional/social development are closely interwoven. Intellectual development depends heavily on the student's adjustment to self and others and on his interests and values. Correspondingly, personal/social development has essential intellectual components--thinking, planning, valuing, and choosing. This unit focuses on such goals as describing how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members, and how this can be corrected; describing instructional approaches that foster positive self-concepts; and describing how the group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies. (Author/IRT)

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TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP IN LOCAL EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS

UNIT 6. PERSONAL/SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AS AN EDUCATIONAL THEME, WITH RELATED INNOVATIONS

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NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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PREFACE

This is one of 10 units in a program of Training for Leadership in Local Educational Improvement Programs. Development of the program was begun at the Learning Research and Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh and has been carried forward at Research for Better Schools in Philadelphia.

If you have in hand the Instructor's Guide to the program, or Unit 1 entitled Training Program Introduction and General Study Plan Guide, you will have sufficient introduction to the nature and purposes of the training program. If you do not have access to one or both of these items, the following paragraphs will introduce you to this unit of the program.

This unit was designed for use by anyone holding a position calling for leadership in planning and conducting local educational change programs. This means school district leaders - central office administrators, building principals, curriculum specialists, or teachers involved in change project teams. Also it means graduate students in curriculum, administration, or supervision. In addition, curriculum specialists or field personnel of state education departments or other educational agencies may find the unit of value in their work with school districts - as in the conduct of workshops involving local school personnel.

The unit can be studied on a wholly self-instructional basis, or with an instructor's direction. It requires about 6 to 10 hours of study time.

The themes of the unit deal with the important areas of affective and social development. These areas have received such emphasis in educational innovation during recent years that they deserve the special attention of leaders of local educational improvement.

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UNIT 6. PERSONAL/SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AS EDUCATIONAL THEME, WITH RELATED INNOVATIONS

Introduction

The development of the student as person and as group or community member became a major theme of educational innovation during the 1960's. Previously, most educators had sought to make a sharp distinction between intellectual and personal/social development, assigning the first to the schools, the latter to home and community. For several reasons, this distinction has been abandoned by many educational innovators who contend that the development of such attributes as positive self-concept, self-management, interests, values, and interpersonal competencies is at least as important in the education of the individual as the development of intellectual skills and knowledge.

Recognizing that home and community very often fail to provide adequately for personal and social development, educators now are calling on the schools to assume responsibilities in this area. A signal of this change, and a stimulus toward it, was the publication in 1964 of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain following by nearly a decade the publication in 1956 of Handbook I: Cognitive Domain. (Both volumes were published in New York by David McKay Company.)

Numerous other reasons can be given for the introduction of an emphasis on personal/social development. The movement toward individualized instruction has attracted attention to a broadened conception of the aspects of individual development that are crucial for effectiveness in life roles. Cultural crises involving minority group members, particularly blacks, and involving problems related to growing up in urban society, have played a major part in creating the new emphasis. The disaffection of young people with traditional institutions and values with the resulting dropouts, strikes, and

riots have demanded major changes in the concerns of educators.

Another reason for a focus on personal/social goals in schools is the fuller realization that intellectual and emotional/social development are closely interwoven. Intellectual development depends heavily on the student's adjustment to self and others, and on his interests and values. Correspondingly, personal/social development has essential intellectual components; thinking, planning, valuing, and choosing are as important here as for the more traditional intellectual attainments.

What this unit offers you

The literature on personal/social development in relation to school practice is so large that this unit can do no more than offer a general orientation to the area and specific materials on a few selected topics. Unit objectives are listed below.

1. State briefly a justification for stressing the student's personal/social development in the content and conduct of instruction.
2. Define self-concept and describe two or more ways of measuring it.
3. Describe one or more instructional approaches to fostering in students positive self-concepts through offering them acceptance and approval.
4. State how individualized instruction and mastery-referenced instruction can be expected to contribute to positive self-concepts.
5. Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members, and how this can be corrected.
6. Define achievement motivation and describe one way of measuring it.
7. Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.
8. Describe and evaluate "contingent reinforcement" or "behavior modification" as a way of motivating students at school.
9. List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.

10. Define impulsivity - reflectivity as a dimension of individual behavior and describe one way of measuring it.

11. Describe one way of teaching a student to be less impulsive, more reflective, in performing learning tasks.

12. Describe one way of teaching students to increase their competence in self-managed learning.

13. Describe briefly the first three categories (Receiving, Responding, and Valuing) in the Affective Domain of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

14. Define values and describe one method of teaching values to students in elementary or secondary schools.

15. Define empathy and describe one way of teaching students empathy toward members of groups differing from themselves.

16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.

17. Describe how the group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.

18. Specify shortcomings of instruction in traditional school programs with respect to students' personal/social development and describe one innovative approach to remedying such shortcomings.

19. Observe and analyze instruction using a checklist of features related to personal/social development.

Unit Study Plan

Before beginning study of this unit, you should determine how intensively you want or need to study each objective. After a careful diagnosis of your needs and present attainments, if you judge that study of some of the unit objectives is unnecessary, you are free to omit them from your study.

Below is a guide for arriving at your study plan, either with help from your instructor (if you have one) or on your own. The guide calls for a four-step procedure: assess your needs to study the unit objectives, decide how to study them, assess your mastery of the unit objectives after study of the unit, and evaluate the unit.

Personal assessment of needs to study the unit. First, turn the pages of the unit quickly to acquaint yourself with the objectives and their contents. Twenty minutes should be sufficient for skimming the unit.

Next, perform the Pre-Assessment Exercise that follows to obtain a basis for estimating your present level of mastery of the unit objectives. The exercise contains questions giving you the opportunity to review your knowledge as related to the unit objectives. In doing the Pre-Assessment Exercise, use it simply as a way of determining what parts of the unit you need to study. It is not expected that you will pass the Pre-Assessment, though you are apt to find that you can answer some of the questions adequately before studying the unit.

When you have completed the Pre-Assessment Exercise, check your answers against the Pre-Assessment Exercise Answer Key (at the end of the unit). Keep in mind that this exercise is for your use in determing which parts of this unit will require the bulk of your study time.

PRE-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE - UNIT 6

Directions: This pre-assessment has two purposes. It gives you the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of some unit objectives before studying the unit, and it orients you to the unit as preparation for studying it.

Feel no obligation to answer a question. It is not expected that you will necessarily be able to answer any of the questions. However, if you can give a fully adequate answer to a question on this pre-assessment, you have no need to study that part of the unit to which the question refers.

Probably you will need no more than one-half hour to complete this exercise. When you complete it, turn to the Pre-Assessment Exercise - Answer Key at the end of the unit to check your answers. Then turn to the page following this Pre-Assessment Exercise to continue with your unit study plan.

Objective 1. Justify stressing the student's personal/social development in the school instructional program.

Objective 2. Define self-concept and describe two ways to measure it.

Objective 3. Describe an approach to fostering positive self-concepts through offering students acceptance and approval.

Objective 4. State how individualized and mastery-referenced instruction can contribute to positive self-concepts.

Objective 5. Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members.

Objective 6. Define achievement motivation and describe one way to measure it.

Objective 7. Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.

Objective 8. Describe contingent reinforcement as a way to motivate students.

Objective 9. List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.

Objective 10. Define impulsivity-reflectivity as a dimension of personal behavior.

Objective 11. Describe one way of teaching students to be less impulsive.

Objective 12. Describe one way to teach students self-managed learning.

Objective 13. Describe briefly the categories of Receiving, Responding, and Valuing in the Affective Domain of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Objective 14. Define values and describe one way to teach values to students.

Objective 15. Define empathy and describe a way to teach empathy toward members of groups differing from one's own.

Objective 16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.

Objective 17. Describe how a group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.

Objective 18. Describe shortcomings of traditional school programs with respect to students' personal/social development and describe a way to remedy them.

Having completed the Pre-Assessment Exercise, you (with your instructor, if you have one) should check your answers with those given in the Pre-Assessment Exercise - Answer Key at the end of the unit. Compare the quality and detail of your answers with those offered in the Answer Key. There is no one right answer to any of the questions but rather key points that are required for an adequate answer, with those points stated in your own words. The Answer Key probably contains fuller answers to most of the questions in the exercise than you can give before studying the unit.

In the following table (next page) you are asked to check the estimates you (and your instructor?) make of your level of mastery of each objective. Check HIGH if you judge your answer to be right on target and in adequate detail. Check MODERATE if you believe your answer to be good but lacking some points needed for a fully adequate answer. Check LOW if you find your answer to be inappropriate or incomplete, or if you did not answer the question.

After checking your level of mastery of each objective, check at the right whether the objective requires merely review, or careful study. It is not a sound procedure for you to study the Answer Key as a way of learning answers to items in the Pre-Assessment Exercise. Instead, you should study the unit materials since they are meant to prepare you to give an adequate answer based on an understanding derived from reading and practice exercises.

UNIT STUDY PLAN CHECKSHEET

OBJECTIVE	TOPIC	PRESENT MASTERY H	M	L	REVIEW ONLY	NEED TO STUDY
1.	Justify stress on personal/social development in the school instructional program	___	___	___	___	___
2.	Define self-concept and describe two ways to measure it.	___	___	___	___	___
3.	Describe a way to foster positive self-concepts by offering acceptance, approval.	___	___	___	___	___
4.	State how individualization and mastery can contribute to positive self-concepts.	___	___	___	___	___
5.	Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members.	___	___	___	___	___
6.	Define achievement motivation and describe one way to measure it.	___	___	___	___	___
7.	Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.	___	___	___	___	___
8.	Describe contingent reinforcement as a way to motivate students.	___	___	___	___	___
9.	List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.	___	___	___	___	___
10.	Define impulsivity-reflectivity as a dimension of personal behavior.	___	___	___	___	___
11.	Describe one way of teaching students to be less impulsive.	___	___	___	___	___
12.	Describe one way to teach students self-managed learning.	___	___	___	___	___
13.	Describe Receiving, Responding, and Valuing in the affective domain of objectives.	___	___	___	___	___
14.	Define values and describe one way to teach values to students.	___	___	___	___	___
15.	Define empathy and describe a way to teach empathy toward members of other groups.	___	___	___	___	___

STUDY PLAN CHECKSHEET (CONT.)

OBJECTIVE	PRESENT MASTERY H	M	L	REVIEW ONLY	NEED TO STUDY
16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.	___	___	___	____	____
17. Describe how group-projects can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.	___	___	___	____	____
18. Describe faults of traditional schools re students' personal/social development, and describe a way to remedy them.	___	___	___	____	____

Study procedure. In studying the unit, you will gain by doing the objectives in the order in which they appear since each part of the unit assumes a level of understanding based on the previous parts. It is a good idea to at least skim those parts of the unit that you judge, on the basis of the Pre-Assessment Exercise, that you already have mastered.

You may wish to study all or part of the unit with one or more fellow students. Your instructor may elect to conduct group sessions either to introduce the unit, to review it after your study, or to add further material. And, of course, you could study the unit entirely independently.

You will note that, under each objective, explanatory material is given that is usually supported by illustrations and most often is involved in exercises you perform. The exercises are either followed immediately by explanatory materials to help you check and round out your answers, or they are provided with an Answer Key.

You probably will take one or two days to study this unit, depending on how intensively you need or want to study any or all of its objectives. It is best to go through the unit in its entirety first, then make plans for later and more intensive study of any areas of particular interest to you.

Post-assessment. When you complete study of the unit, you will find directions for the Post-Assessment Exercise. Perform the Exercise and check your answers against those given in the Answer Key. If you fail to show mastery of any objectives at this time, further study is indicated.

Unit evaluation. At the end of the unit you will find a Unit Evaluation Form. It will be helpful if you take a few minutes to complete it and return it to the address given. This will be an aid in making any revisions of the unit and in learning who can benefit from study of it.

GENERAL REFERENCES

References to readings related to particular objectives are given under those objectives. In addition, a number of general references to personal/social development may be of interest to you, either while studying this unit, or later. Obviously, hundreds of other references might have been listed. The following have been selected as representative of general references in the current literature.

Mussen, Paul H., Conger, John J., and Kagan, Jerome. Child Development and Personality (2nd. ed.). New York: Harper & Row, 1963.

This is an excellent source book on development throughout adolescence. Chapter 12 is on Adjustment to School and Intellectual Development.

Hess, Robert, and Bear, Donald M. (eds.) Early Education. Chicago: Aldine Press, 1968.

This volume contains chapters by leading experts in the field. An especially valuable chapter for this unit is by Eleanor Maccoby on "Early Learning and Personality" that reviews research findings on the subject in relation to such topics as attention, achievement motivation, and control of aggression.

Henrie, Samuel N. (Senior Editor). A Sourcebook of Elementary Curriculum Programs and Projects. The ALERT Information System, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1885 Folsom St., San Francisco.

This book gives specific descriptions of a large number of programs and projects including curricula, instructional programs, and training programs. THere is a chapter on Affective Education/Personal Development and one on Ethnic Education and Intergroup Relations.

Johnson, Orval G., and Bommarito, James W. Tests and Measurements in Child Development: A Handbook. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1971.

This volume gives specific descriptive information on a large number of measures of personal/social aspects of development. Included are sections on Personality and Emotional Characteristics, Perceptions of Environment (attitudes toward adults, peers, etc.), Self-Concept, and Social Behavior.

Center for the Study of Evaluation and Research for Better Schools. CSE-RBS Tests of Higher-Order Cognitive, Affective, and Interpersonal Skills. Dissemination Office, Center for the Study of Evaluation, Graduate School of Education, University of California, 405 Hilgard Ave. Los Angeles, Cal.

This volume gives a systematic evaluation of various measures for use with different age groups from early childhood to adulthood. Use of the evaluations requires considerable knowledge of testing.

Beatty, W. H. (ed.) Improving Educational Assessment and An Inventory of Measures of Affective Behavior. Washington, D. C.: NEA-ASCD, 1969.

This volume includes sections on Interaction, Motivation, Personality, and Self-Concept.

Objective 1.	State briefly a justification for stressing the student's personal/social development in the content and conduct of instruction.

When you become involved in helping schools improve the provisions they make for students' personal/social development, it is essential that you be prepared to offer them a justification for placing emphasis on these sorts of learning goals. This objective is concerned with this purpose and provides materials to help you round out your ideas in case this is not a topic you have worked through fully.

Three major questions need answers in connection with justifying provisions in the school program for students' personal/social development. Exercise 1 presents you with these questions and invites you to put down the answers that already are in your mind. There is no answer key to this exercise. Instead, following it, you will find a discussion based on each question to help you round out your understanding. Also, you will find some references to the literature that you may want to refer to now or later.

EXERCISE I - WORKSHEET

Reasons for Stressing Personal/Social Development

Directions: Write your brief answers to each of the three questions below. Treat this exercise merely as a way of organizing your present ideas about the needs for attention to the student's personal social development. Following the exercise you will find a discussion of each of the three topics and references to sources you might wish to consult.

---

1. What importance have personal and social development in the individual's total educational experience both outside and inside school?

2. What aspects of today's society create new demands for personal/social development?

3. What is some evidence that home and community are failing to provide adequately for the student's personal and social development?

The Importance of Personal/Social Development

Probably no one doubts the importance of the individual developing as an adequate person and an effective social being. A useful way of examining this matter is to consider the major life roles an individual fills--as family member, community member, friend, worker, citizen, and private person--and to review the part played in each role by such attributes as interests, values, self-concept, honesty, responsibility, initiative, empathy, communication skills, and skills in group participation. The core of everyone's life consists of a private world of self in which one interprets, values, and shapes personal experience. Also, each individual is a social being, filling a complex set of roles in relations with others.

An indication of the importance people attach to personal and social effectiveness is the preoccupation with such matters in conversation, on TV, in newspapers and magazines, and in paperbacks. Many books high on the bestseller list deal with the person and his or her relationships with others. Here is a sample list of titles: I'm OK - You're OK, Human Aggression, The Peter Principle, What Do You Say After You Say Hello, Free and Female, and How To Live With Yourself and Like It. Doubtless you can add many titles to this list.

Demands of Changing Society for Personal/Social Development

Alvin Toffler's bestselling paperback, Future Shock (New York: Random House, 1970) portrays the implications for the individual of the very rapid and continual changes in virtually every aspect of human society. He sees a tendency for individuals to turn away from a faith in rational ways of coping with one's experience in such a world:

> The assertion that the world has "gone crazy," the graffiti slogan that "reality is a crutch," the interest in hallucinogenic drugs, the enthusiasm for astrology and the occult, the search for truth in sensation, ecstasy and "peak experience," the swing toward extreme subjectivism, the attacks on science, the snowballing belief that reason has failed man, reflect the everyday experience of masses of ordinary people who find they can no longer cope rationally with change.

Elsewhere, in an article on "The Future as a Way of Life," Toffler wrote:

> We have encountered the future so rapidly and with such violent changes in the ordered and familiar patterns of our way of life that we are suffering ..... the dizzying disorientation brought on by the premature arrival of the future. (Horizons, Summer 1965, p. 109)

An article dealing with the personal and social demands being placed on the individual by changing society is "Education to Meet the Psychological Requirements for Living in the Future" by Glen Heathers (Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 25, No. 2, Summer 1974). You may wish to refer to this discussion of the impact of change on the economic, political, social, and personal aspects of the individual's life.

Another source to turn to is a discussion of "Economic, Social, and Political Forces" by Gow, Holzner, and Pendleton who describe the individual's predicament in the face of rapid, complex, and unpredictable change in this way:

> He orients himself to probabilities, not certainties, thus facing up to the fact that man is compelled to make responsible decisions in the face of uncertainty .... He requires a high level of tolerance for uncertainty and the ability to overcome through action the anxiety arising in situations of crises; and he is often fearful lest these demands prove too much for him and his fellow-men. (In John I. Goodlad, ed., The Changing American School. 66th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967.)

The stresses today's inner city places on children and youth are so well known that they do not require detailing. The urban ghettos have correctly been described as jungles where economic survival and personal safety are matters of acute daily concern. Problems of urban living are

especially severe for ethnic minorities--blacks, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, American Indians, and others. Personal/social development of the minority-group child is made particularly difficult because of the requirement to learn to live simultaneously in two cultures, that of one's minority group and that of our dominant middle-class white society.

Other stresses imposed on young people relate to changing life patterns of young people involving a youth culture that stands often in conflict with the conventional patterns of living that the adult generation seeks to impose on pre-adolescents and adolescents.

Evidence for Inadequate Personal/Social Development

It is difficult to catalog the failures of our society (through home, community, school, and other agencies) to produce emotionally healthy, well integrated, and socially effective individuals. We know, however, that a large proportion of children and youth have serious problems involving self-concept, interests, values, interpersonal skills, and other essential aspects of living. There are no reliable statistics on the percentage of individuals growing up in our society with serious neurotic problems limiting their personal and social effectiveness and restricting their capacity to find enjoyment in life. A reasonable estimate is that between one-half and three-quarters of individuals in any age group can be found to suffer to a significant extent from such problems as feelings of inadequacy, anxiety, guilt, hostility, apathy, or lack of social competencies.

An excellent summary statement on problems presented by adolescents is included in the article on "Psychological Education in Secondary Schools to Promote Individual and Human Development" by Ralph L. Mosher and Normal A. Sprinthall. You will find this article summarized in Objective 18 of this unit. These authors discuss such problems as drug addiction, suicide, student

unrest, vandalism, racial polarization, and alienation from society.

Objective 2. Define self-concept and describe two or more ways of measuring it.

Defining Self-Concept.

Stated most simply, the term "self-concept" refers to how the individual thinks and feels about himself or herself. But a person's self-concept is never simple. A person is highly complex and one's way of describing and valuing oneself varies with the aspect of self being considered. One may have high self-regard in one aspect of life (sports, musical expression, personal appearance, etc.) and low self-regard in another aspect (social relationships, work habits, dependability, etc.). Also, one's self-concept fluctuates from situation to situation and from time to time depending especially on experiences of success or failure, and experiences of being accepted or rejected, praised or criticized, by others.

A good way of clarifying your view of self-concept is to examine how you think and feel about yourself. Exercise 2 invites you to think through how you would answer each of a list of self-concept questions about yourself. If you wish to write down your answers in the spaces provided, do so. However, you (like most other people) probably regard your self-concept as a sensitive area and you may not wish to write down your answers. The questions on the list are only a few of the many that could be asked to gain a full picture of your many-faceted self-concept.

Obviously, there can be no answer key to Exercise 2.

EXERCISE 2 - WORKSHEET

Sample Self-Concept Questions

Directions: Think through how you would answer each of the following questions in regard to your own self-concept. This exercise is entirely for you and you should feel perfectly free not to write down your answers. The exercise should help prepare you for studying ways of measuring self-concept.

---

1. What am I like?

2. How do I feel about myself?

3. What do I look like?

4. How healthy and strong am I?

5. How good am I in sports?

6. How good is my mind?

7. How good am I as a worker?

8. How successful am I in making and keeping friends?

9. How effective am I in the most intimate relationships?

10. How well do I occupy myself when I'm alone?

11. What would I like to be like (my ideal self-concept)?

12. What are the main things I'd like to change about myself?

Add any other questions you recommend for this list:

Ways of Measuring Self-Concepts

This unit does not attempt to teach how to measure self-concepts. Instead, it offers a brief, introductory description of the measurement approaches that are being used. If you are not an expert in testing, you should turn to such experts for help whenever such tests are to be used.

Six general methods for measuring self-concept are identified and illustrated below. A copy of the borchure, Measures of Self-Concept, Grades 4-6, prepared by Educational Testing Service, is provided you (pages 28-31). The brochure contains references to all six methods that are described here. In satisfying this unit objective, you are asked to become prepared to describe at least two of the methods (in case you cannot already meet this requirement).

Method 1: Describing one's self. With this method, the individual is asked to answer questions about himself or herself, either orally or in writing. The questions listed above under "My Self-Concept" illustrate this method. The questions may be presented in an interview as is illustrated in the ETS brochure by Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Counseling Form. Note that with this scale, the individual's answers are rated by the counselor on various factors to create a self-concept profile.

Method 2: Self rating. With this method, the individual is asked to rate himself or herself on a number of scales such as the Coopersmith Behavior Rating Form that presents 13 items, each to be answered by the individual by checking on a five-point scale. An example of a scale you might answer about yourself is this:

How successful am I in making the friends I want to make?

_____ Almost always successful

_____ Usually successful

_____ Successful about half of the time

_____ Most of the time not successful

_____ Hardly ever successful

Method 3: Projective testing. In this method, the individual is given some stimulus material he is asked to respond to by saying what occurs to him. For example, the Columbus Sentence Completion for Children asks the person to write the endings to sentences that are started for him. An example might be, "When I play games with the other kids ....." Extreme answers related to self-concept might be "I always win," or "I always lose." Another sort of projective test presents a series of pictures of situations children are apt to experience and asks the child to talk about the pictures. Responses are scored in terms of how the child appears to "project" himself into the pictures and thereby reveal attitudes toward self. One such projective test is the Children's Self-Conception Test: Form II described in the ETS brochure.

Method 4: Semantic differential. The term "semantic" refers to the meaning of words. The semantic differential method presents word pairs where the two words of a pair are opposites such as tall-short, or fast-slow. The individual is asked to check the word in each pair that comes closer to describing him. The test administrator infers the individual's self-concept from the series of words checked. In the ETS borchure, an example of this method is the What I Am Like test.

You can try this method by thinking how you would check each of the word pairs below in describing yourself. (You may prefer not to mark your answers.)

_____ warm	_____ cold
_____ hard	_____ soft
_____ spontaneous	_____ controlled
_____ impulsive	_____ reflective
_____ contented	_____ troubled

Method 5: Level of aspiration. With this method, the individual performs some task or game such as throwing darts at a target. Self-concept is assumed to be shown by accuracy in predicting one's score, by goals set for succeding trials, by reactions to failing to achieve one's set goals, etc. An example in the ETS brochure is Self-Concept Target Game.

Method 6: Inferring self-concept from observed behavior. With this method, the individual's responses to various situations are observed and judgments made about self-concept. Thus the child who avoids doing tasks that challenge him or who seeks excessive reassurance, may be judged to lack a strong positive self-concept. An example in the ETS borchure is Inferred Self-Concept Scale: Experimental Form

In considering how much reliance can be placed in the various methods of measuring self-concept, you need to keep in mind that one's self-concept is highly complex and varies greatly from situation to situation and from mood to mood. Also, bear in mind that most people have the tendency to hide or gloss over unfavorable things about themselves. Experts are needed to select, administer, and score self-concept tests.

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February, 1973

MEASURES OF SELF-CONCEPT
Grades 4-6

This annotated bibliography deals with a variety of currently available measures of self-concept and self-esteem. For the purposes of this listing, self-concept was defined as a multidimensional construct encompassing the range of an individual's perceptions and evaluations of himself. Many of the devices contained herein emphasize the learner's self-concept or the child's conception of himself in the school environment. However, several global measures are also described. Various methods for assessing self-concept, including direct observations, behavior ratings, self-reports, and projective techniques, are presented. The instruments described in this listing are appropriate for use with children in grades four through six.

Information was obtained from the holdings and references of the Educational Testing Service Test Collection. Please do not write the Test Collection for inspection copies since the Collection does not have distribution rights for its holdings. Specimen sets (when available) and/or specific information must be obtained directly from the publisher or author. Refer to the listing of publishers at the end of this bibliography for complete addresses.

Some of the measures listed below are reviewed or described in the references cited in the bibliography.

About Me by James Parker; Not Dated; Grades 4-6; James Parker*.

A five-point self-rating scale assessing five areas of self-concept which are expressed in behavior in the school setting. Subscores included are: Self, Self in Relation to Others, Self as Achieving, Self in School, and the Physical Self.

*Included in Parker, James. *The Relationship of Self-Report to Inferred Self-Concept*. Educational and Psychological Measurement. 26 Pp. 691-700; 1966.

The Behavior Cards: A Test–Interview for Delinquent Children by Ralph M. Stogdill; c1941-50; Grades 3-10; Stoelting Company.

Use of the Cards provides the child with an opportunity to face his problems and provides an insight into the child's attitudes toward his delinquent behavior. The test is individually administered employing the card-sort technique. Any child who scores grade 4.5 or higher on a standardized reading test should be able to sort the cards with little assistance. Cards can be read to subjects with reading disabilities. At times an abbreviated version of the test can be given by eliminating fifty specified cards. This eliminates the more serious delinquent behaviors.

Behavior Rating Form by Stanley Coopersmith; Not Dated; Grades Kindergarten-9; Stanley Coopersmith*.

A 13-item five-point rating scale devised for appraising assured and confident behavior. Items refer to such behavior as the child's

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reaction to failure, self-confidence in a new situation, sociability with peers, and the need for encouragement and reassurance. The form yields two scores: Esteem Behavior and Confidence Behavior.

*Data is available in: Coopersmith, Stanley. *Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman, 1967.

Children's Self-Conception Test: Form II by Marjorie B. Creelman; c1954-55; Grades 3-6; Marjorie B. Creelman.

Designed to assess the relationship of self-concept to adjustment or maladjustment. Employs a series of pictures depicting situations commonly experienced by children in Western culture. Test provides indications of self-esteem and moral standards.

Children's Self-Social Constructs Test: Primary Form by Edmund H. Hendersen, Barbara H. Long, and Robert C. Ziller; c1967; Grades 1-6; Edmund H. Hendersen.

A measure of social self-concept from which certain aspects of the child's conceptions of himself are inferred. Subscores include: Self Esteem, Social Interest or Dependency, Identification, Group Identification, Individuation or Minority Identification, Power, Egocentricity, Complexity, Realism for Size, and Preference for Others.

Columbus Sentence Completion for Children by Jack A. Shaffer and Arthur S. Tamkin; Not Dated; Ages 4-Adolescence; Jack A. Shaffer.

A general projective test covering the following topics: Self-Concept, Wishes and Plans, Self-Concept (Problems), Family, Social, School, and Picture of Self. The test provides an indication of the child's adjustment level.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory: Form A by Stanley Coopersmith; Not Dated; Ages 9-Adults*; Stanley Coopersmith.

Designed to provide a general assessment of self-esteem. The 58 items are arranged into five subscales: General Self, Social Self–Peers, Home–Parents, Lie Scale, Home–Academic.

*Can be used with children younger than age 9 if individually administered. Technical information is available in: Coopersmith, Stanley. *Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman, 1967.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory: Form B (Short Form) by Stanley Coopersmith; Not Dated; Ages 9-Adults; Stanley Coopersmith*.

Designed to measure self-esteem from the perspective of the subject. Emphasis is placed on the subject's self-attitudes in four areas: peers, parents, school, and personal interest.

*Additional information is available in: Coopersmith, Stanley. *Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman, 1967.

Expanded Test Anxiety Scale for Children (Feld and Lewis -1969) by Sheila C. Feld and Judith Lewis; 1969; Grades 1-9; Sheila C. Feld*.

A modification of the *Sarason Test Anxiety Scale for Children* which includes the original and revised questions and two neutral items about dreams and achievement. Subscales include: Test Anxiety, Remote School Concern, Poor Self-Evaluation, and Somatic Signs of Anxiety.

*Included in Feld, S., and Lewis, J. "The Assessment of Achievement Anxieties in Children." In C.P. Smith (Ed.), *Achievement-Related Motives in Children*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969, Pp. 151-199.

How I See Myself Scale: Elementary Form by Ira J. Gordon; 1968; Grades 3-6; Ira J. Gordon (Manual is available from the Florida Educational Research and Development Council).

Factors assessed are Teacher-School, Physical Appearance, Interpersonal Adequacy, and Academic Adequacy.

How Much Like Me? by Dale W. Dysinger; Not Dated; Grades 3-5; Dale W. Dysinger.

A self-administered measure of general self-concept.

Inferred Self-Concept Judgment Scale by Elizabeth McDaniel; 1965-69; Grades 1-9; Elizabeth McDaniel.

Designed to measure the student's self-concept as it is generated and in the school setting.

Inferred Self-Concept Scale: Experimental Form by Elizabeth L. McDaniel; c1969; Grades 1 and Above; San Felipe Press.

Scale is based upon the assumption that self-concept can be inferred from manifest behavior. Scale purports to be appropriate for assessing and comparing self-concepts of culturally different groups. Test may also be used with adults and German juveniles.

Instructional Objectives Exchange: Measures of Self-Concept, Kindergarten-Grade 12, Revised Edition; 1972; Grades Kindergarten-12; Instructional Objectives Exchange.

A series of affective objectives concerning the learner's self concept. Dimensions employed are peer, scholastic, family, and general. Self-report inventories (direct and indirect) and observational inventories are provided to assess the attainment of each objective.

structional Objectives Exchange: Objective Collection in Attitude Toward School, Kindergarten-Grade 12, Revised Edition; 1972; Grades Kindergarten-12; Instructional Objectives Exchange.

A collection of affective objectives dealing with the learner's self-concept as reflected in attitudes toward teacher, school subjects, learning, peers, social structure and climate, and general attitudes. An observational indicator and both direct and inferential self-report measures are provided to assess the attainment of each objective.

Morgan Punishment-Situation Index by Patricia K. Morgan; Not Dated (Test is copyrighted); Ages Children 9-12 and their mothers; Eugene L. Gaier.

A projective device specifically concerned with the perception of the direction of aggression in the punishment situation. The *Index* yields four concepts operating in the punishment situation: the child's self-concept, his concept of his mother, the mother's self-concept, and her concept of the child. Employs scoring procedures developed for *Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Test.*

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale by Ellen V. Piers and Dale B. Harris; c1969; Grades 3-12; Counselor Recording and Tests.

Measures self-concept with regard to behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. May be used as a classroom screening device to identify children in need of psychological referral.

Rogers' Personal Adjustment Inventory by Carl R. Rogers; c1961; Ages 9-13; Western Psychological Services.

Designed to assess a child's attitude toward himself, his family, and his peers. Subscores include: Personal Inferiority, Social Maladjustment, Family Maladjustment, and Daydreaming.

Sears Self-Concept Inventory: Abbreviated Form by Pauline S. Sears; 1966; Grades 3-6; Pauline S. Sears.

The child rates himself in terms of: Physical Ability, Attractive Appearance, Convergent Mental Ability, Social Relations with Same Sex, Social Virtues, Divergent Mental Ability, Work Habits, Happy Qualities, and School Subjects.

Self-Concept Adjective Checklist by Alan J. Politte; c1971; Grades Kindergarten-8; Psychologists and Educators, Inc.

Enables the student to project his personal feelings related to self-concept phenomena and provides indices of his general levels of self-concept feelings. The adjectives cover the following: Physical Traits, Social Values, Intellectual Abilities, and Miscellaneous (emotional feelings, group behaviors, and habits). As a result of the scoring, the child is identified as "self-confident," poor self-concept," or "aggressive."

Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory: Later Elementary Form by George A. Farrah; c1968; Grades 3-6; Person-O-Metrics.

Measures academic self-concept in terms of the child's perception of his role as a learner. The inventory yields scores for role expectations, self-adequacy, goal and achievement needs, and failure avoidance.

Self-Concept As A Learner Scale–Elementary by John K. Fisher; Not Dated; Grades 3-6; John K. Fisher.

The SCAL is a modification of the secondary scale developed by Walter B. Waetjen. Subscores include: Motivation, Task Orientation, Problem Solving, and Class Membership. The Motivation factor is designed to determine the degree to which the respondent perceives himself motivated to do school work and to participate in learning activities. Task Orientation refers to the way a student sees himself relating to learning activities. Problem Solving determines the view that a pupil has of himself as a problem solver. The Class Membership factor is designed to find out how the student sees himself in relation to other members of the class.

Self-Concept Instrument–A Learner Scale by Gordon P. Liddle; 1967; Grades 3-6; Gordon P. Liddle.

Variables assessed are self-concept in reference to motivation, intellectual ability, task orientation, and class membership.

Self-Concept of Ability Scale; 1963-68; Grades 2-6; University of Maryland Research and Demonstration Center of the Interpersonal Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services.

Designed to assess change in self-reported attitudes of groups of students toward themselves as learners. Covers six academic content areas: arithmetic, English, social studies, science, music, and art. The bases of comparison are the class, the grade level, close friends, future high school class, future college associates, other students in general, and one's own ability. The scale was adapted from Brookover, Paterson, Thomas' *Self-Concept of Ability.*

Self-Concept Target Game by Ann FitzGibbon; 1970; Ages 9-10; Ann FitzGibbon.

Designed for use with children who have participated in the Responsive Model Follow Through Program. It is a measure of self-concept in terms of the child's willingness to take reasonable risks of failure, make positive estimates of his ability to perform a task, make realistic statements about the probability of being right

or wrong, learn from errors and corrections, use failure in a productive manner, and take credit for accomplishments and acknowledge failure. Individually administered.

Self Profile Q-Sort by Alan J. Politte; c1970; Grades 3-8; Psychologists and Educators Inc.

Aids in elementary school counseling by providing a means for eliciting self-evaluation from a student, for investigating changes in a student's self-concept through the course of counseling sessions, and for stimulating group interaction in the counseling setting.

A Semantic Differential for Measurement of Global and Specific Self-Concepts by Lois Stillwell; Not Dated; Grades 1-3 and 4-6; Lois Stillwell.

Test can be modified to assess attitudes towards self in a variety of specific roles or conception of self from the point of view of a stated referent. The Primary Form is appropriate for Grades one through three and the Upper Grades Form is for the fourth grade and beyond. Test can be group administered easily to those in grade three or higher. First and second graders may have difficulty and will require several assistants to provide close observation. Subscores include: Myself, Myself As a Student, Myself As a Reader, Myself As an Arithmetic Student.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Clinical and Research Form by William H. Fitts; c1964-70; Ages 12 and Above; Counselor Recordings and Tests.

Yields 30 profiled scores: Self Criticism, Self Esteem (Identity, Self-Satisfaction, Behavior, Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, Total), Variability of Response (Variation across First Three Self-Esteem Scores, Variation across Last Five Self-Esteem Scores, Total), Distribution, Time, Response Bias, Net Conflict, Total Conflict, Empirical (Defensive Positive, General Maladjustment, Psychosis, Personality Disorder, Neurosis, Personality Integration), Deviant Signs, and five scores consisting of counts of each type of response made.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Counseling Form by William H. Fitts; c1964-70; Ages 12 and Above; Counselor Recordings and Tests.

Yields 15 profiled scores; Self-Criticism, Self-Esteem (Identity), Self-Satisfaction, Behavior, Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, Total), Variability of Responses (Variation across First Three Self-Esteem Scores, Variation across Last Five Self-Esteem Scores, Total), Distribution, and Time.

What I Am Like; Not Dated; Grades 4-10; Cincinnati Public Schools, Division of Psychological Services and Division of Program Development.

A five-point, bi-polar, self-rating scale based on Osgood's concept of the semantic differential. Subtests are: What I Look Like, What I Am Like When I Am With My Friends, and What I Am. The test is for research only and is to be used only in group assessment.

When Do I Smile? by Dale W. Dysinger; Not Dated; Grades 1-5; American Institutes for Research.

Variable assessed in self-concept in reference to the school setting.

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Objective 3. Describe an instructional approach using acceptance and approval to foster positive self-concepts in students.

Offering all students acceptance and approval is an essential part of the job of every member of the school staff. While many times a student's work or conduct cannot be approved, the guiding rule should be to "accentuate the positive."

In your experience as a teacher, administrator, or specialist, you doubtless have developed your personal style for giving individual students attention, acceptance, or approval. Exercise 3 invites you to summarize your experience by setting down guidelines or rules you would offer a student teacher with regard to offering students acceptance or approval. Also, the exercise invites you to describe one or more special methods for using a positive approach to building self-concepts, perhaps with inner-city children.

When you have completed the Worksheet for the exercise, you should read the discussion following the Worksheet to check and round out your answers.

EXERCISE 3 - WORKSHEET

Ways of Offering Students Acceptance or Approval

Directions: Assume you are offering guidance to a student teacher on ways of offering students acceptance or approval. Jot down the guidelines or rules you would advise the student teacher to follow. Then, if you know of a special method for enhancing student's positive self-concepts, describe it briefly.

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1. What guidelines or rules would you offer a student teacher for fostering positive self-concepts in students by offering acceptance or approval?

2. If you know of one, describe a special method for offering students personal attention, acceptance, or approval.

General Methods for Offering Students Acceptance or Approval

Every day the teacher should take advantage of opportunities to recognize each student by saying "Hello," "It's nice to see you," "How are you today?"; by giving the student a smile; by touching the student on the shoulder; etc. With small children, more physical affection can be shown.

The teacher needs to avoid deliberately or unintentionally rejecting students. Ignoring a student's request for attention or help is a form of rejection. Often teachers, in the effort to control undesired behavior, reject students by their manner of criticizing such behavior as breaking rules or not studying. If the teacher creates an atmosphere of freedom and depends on positive control through challenging and encouraging students and through showing a sense of humor, the apparent need for negative control will be less. The teacher needs to make the important distinction between rejecting a student's undesired behavior and rejecting the student as person.

A critical part of the teacher's role is approving students' performance. This clearly is important both in encouraging learning and in building students' positive self-concepts. The teacher should place emphasis on recognizing the student's efforts as well as accomplishments. Also, the teacher should see to it that less-capable students work on tasks they can succeed with and that they receive approval for doing what they are capable of accomplishing.

Special Methods for Offering Students Acceptance or Approval

A number of special approaches have been developed recently to provide for accepting students as unique persons. These build on the traditional show-and-tell sessions, on the practice of exhibiting students' work on bulletin boards or in science fairs, on assigning students to classroom management roles, etc. One approach involves taking Polaroid photographs of each child, then talking about the unique qualities of the student revealed in the photograph. Another

video-tapes students, then uses playback and discussion to give recognition to individual students. Another approach, used particularly with minority-group students, gives special attention to the important features of the student's cultural group.

Objective 4. State how individualized instruction and mastery-referenced instruction can contribute to positive self-concepts.

Unit 4 of this training program treats individualization, mastery, and student self-direction as themes in the instructional program. If you have studied this unit, you should have no difficulty in pointing out how individualization and mastery favor positive self-concepts in students. If you have not studied Unit 4, the following discussion will help you satisfy this objective.

The essence of individualized instruction is that each student works on learning tasks specifically planned to suit his learning needs and his characteristics as a learner. Preferably, the student participates in choosing the learning tasks he undertakes and in selecting the ways he goes about accomplishing those tasks. Necessarily, with each student working on his own task that is different from the tasks other students are working on, a high degree of self-direction is required (since a teacher cannot give moment-to-moment attention to each student under these conditions). The effect of having one's own learning tasks and of having a good deal of independence in carrying out those tasks should enhance the student's sense of individuality and contributes to a positive self-concept. In addition, individualized instruction means that the attention received from teachers in planning, conducting, and evaluating learning activities is personal. This too should favor a positive self-concept.

Mastery-referenced instruction means that each student works on tasks that he can succeed with (through individualized lesson planning), and is called upon to work on those tasks until mastery is achieved. The regular experience of success withllearning tasks, and the resulting self-approval and teacher approval, also should build the student's positive self-concept.

Individualized and mastery-referenced instruction offer particularly important benefits to slower learners at school. These students especially need the personal attention that individualized instruction offers. They need the experience of working on their own learning tasks. And they need the experience of regular success that results from instruction that is both individualized and associated with mastery.

Objective 5. Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members and how this can be corrected.

It is very unlikely that you, whether you are an education student, an experienced teacher, or an educational leader, are unaware of the traditional sex-typing in curriculum and instruction that favors males over females. Also, you almost certainly are aware that schools usually are oriented toward the dominant middle-class white culture and tend to slight the cultures and traditions of minority groups in our society. This objective asks you to review and summarize this situation as it relates to building self-concepts of female students and of students representing minority groups. Also, it asks you to indicate how this situation can be corrected.

Exercise 4 invites you to state your experiences or judgments in this area. What is your personal view of the ways in which traditional curricula present girls and boys as having different traits and tend to treat girls as inferior? Also, the exercise invites you to give your views on the ways in which the traditional instructional program favors middle-class white students over members of minority groups in regard to building positive self-concepts.

Following the Exercise 4 Worksheet you will find a discussion of the topic based on selected articles from the literature. In case you wish to refer to the articles themselves, the references are given.

EXERCISE 4 - WORKSHEET

How Curricula and Instruction are Unfavorable to Building Positive Self-Concepts in Girls and Members of Minority Groups

Directions: Write down your views on ways in which curricula and instruction tend to be unfavorable for building positive self-concepts in girls. Also give your views on how the same is true with respect to members of minority groups. After you have stated your views, turn to the discussion of these topics that follows.

Your views on how curricula and instruction present girls in an unfavorable light.

Your views on how curricula and instruction are not fair to members of minority groups.

Sex Stereotyping in Curricula and Instruction

An excellent survey of sex stereotyping in elementary schools, in secondary schools, and in physical education and athletics is to be found in the October 1973 issue of Phi Delta Kappan. If you have access to this issue, you should read the articles on these topics. If not, the following brief abstracts of the articles are offered you.

"Sexism in the Elementary School: A Backward and Forward Look." (By Betty Levy and Judith Stacey.) The authors state that "sex-typing occurs in the elementary school. It permeates all aspects of the curriculum, classroom organization, the structure of the school, teacher behavior with children, and the extra curricular milieu." The traditional sex-typing is detrimental for both sexes but particularly for girls since 'the roles and characteristics assigned to females are less positive and less desirable than those assigned to males.'

A quote from Whitney Darrow's children's book, I'm Glad I'm a Boy, I'm Glad I'm a Girl (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1970), is given:

> Boys have trucks. Girls have dolls.
> Boys are doctors. Girls are nurses.
> Boys are presidents. Girls are first
> ladies. Boys fix things. Girls need
> things fixed. Boys build houses.
> Girls keep houses.

Reference is made to Alpha One, a multimedia phonics program for kindergarteners and first-graders. "In the Alpha One program, each letter of the alphabet is assigned a personality and a gender. The 21 consonants, known as 'the letter boys,' are male; the five vowels are female, each with something wrong with her." When 'Little Miss A' appears, the boys tell her to go away since 'A girl's no good for work or play!

A survey of 134 elementary school readers used in New Jersey revealed that "boys and men are present in the readers overwhelmingly more than girls

and women." There is a 6:1 discrepancy between male and female biographies. The study found that "men appear in a wide range of jobs, whereas women are limited to traditionally female pursuits such as teacher, nurse, telephone operator, and secretary." Men typically are portrayed in the readers as exhibiting "active mastery" while women are shown as passive and dependent.

Math textbooks are as sexist as readers. "Word problems and illustrations reproduce the familiar stereotypes. Girls cook, sew, and look on as boys climb, race, and fly to the moon." The situation is the same with science books. "Girls appear in them mainly to record, observe, and applaud the accomplishments of the boys. Boys are doers; they have control over their environment." Sexism in social studies texts is extreme, presenting the traditional sex roles associated with family, community helpers, and work.

In instruction, the authors note that "certain activities, such as cooking and sewing, are encouraged primarily for girls; other activities such as woodwork and mechanical work are encouraged primarily for boys. ... In instrumental music, percussion and brass are perceived as masculine, while girls are encouraged to play the violin and flute." Also, sex roles are reinforced by the fact that 85 per cent of teachers in elementary schools are women while 79 per cent of principals are men.

Sex-typing is evident in teacher/pupil interactions. "Teachers tend to discipline boys more often and more harshly than girls. They tend to praise boys more than girls, particularly for achievement, and to spend more instructional time with boys. Girls tend to be rewarded for good (i.e., conforming) behavior or else to be ignored."

The article includes an analysis of the effects of sex-typing on pupils' aspirations. A study of vocational aims of first- and second-graders revealed in response to the question, "What would you like to be when you grow up?"

that boys mentioned such occupations as doctor, dentist, astronaut, and football player, while girls most frequently chose nurse or teacher.

Sex-typing pressures are stronger on boys than on girls. "The girl labeled 'tomboy' is less ostracized than the boy considered 'sissy'."

The article continues with a discussion of efforts to change curricula away from the usual sex stereotypes, and with various criticisms of these efforts.

"Sex Stereotypes in the Secondary School Curriculum." (By Janice Law Trecker.) The authors point out that a male focus predominates in the secondary schools. "Texts and programs are designed to enhance the male self-image, promote identification with male spokesmen and heroes, explore the developmental and intellectual growth of young males, and reveal masculine contributions to our culture."

Textbooks in history and the social studies are written as though "our country has maintained itself with a 99% male population. These books consistently refer only to men, i.e., 'our revolutionary forefathers,' 'the men who conquered the West,' or 'the men who built our nation.'"

Texts in mathematics and science reveal a similar bias. A study of junior high school texts showed "that female mathematicians and scientists of note were ignored, and that illustrative and problem-solving materials were consistently characterized by sexual stereotypes." Thus "girls and women were virtually confined to sewing, cooking, and child care."

Supplementary texts and novels for secondary students rarely have female protagonists. They include few biographies of outstanding women.

Overall, a Pennsylvania report, "Sexism in Education," reveals that texts in history, social studies, English, and humanities have these weaknesses:

> ..underrepresentation of women; representation in limited stereotyped roles--wives, mothers, teachers, nurses, secretaries, and other service oriented jobs; reinforcement of culturally conditioned sexist characteristics showing as female such traits as dependency, passivity, noncompetitive spirit, and emotionality; and a very meager appreciation of women's contributions to history, literature, science, and other areas of American life...

The authors cite great sexual inequities in vocational and technical education. Students very often are tracked for vocational education. "Girls are steered into homemaking and boys into industrial arts." ... "Thus females are an overwhelming majority in homemaking, health occupations, and business, while males predominate to an equally striking degree in agriculture, the skilled trades, and the industrial and technical fields." What are developments that promise to improve this situation? ERIC and the Women's Bureau distribute information on women in the labor force. But, in addition, "new ways of thinking about the needs of girls and women and revisions in thinking about their capacities" are essential. Suggestions given are that there be women's studies, self-defense classes, material on contraception, and non-stereotyped courses on family and marriage.

"She Can Play as Good as Any Boy." (By Celeste Ulrich.) This article surveys sexual discrimination in the schools in physical education and athletics. A basic assumption underlying such discrimination is that males, unlike females, are characterized by strength and endurance, making females unable to compete.

> The female is characterized as dependent, passive, fragile, nonaggressive, noncompetitive, yielding, receptive, supportive, and emotionally pliable. The male is depicted as independent, aggressive, competitive, assertive, strong, enduring, courageous, active, disciplined, and emotionally controlled.

There is abundant evidence that these stereotyped notions are false. Females in their work and child-care roles throughout the centuries have shown strength and endurance rivaling males. In recent years, as athletics

have become more open to women, they have shown great skills in such sports as swimming, tennis, softball, and the roller derby. While males generally are larger and stronger, and can run faster, women are not far behind. An important point made by Ulrich is that many females are stronger and more enduring than many males.

> Clearly, therefore, a woman should be able to aspire to values treasured for all healthy people and not be regarded as unfeminine when she exhibits such traits.

In high schools, females very often are used

> ...to support male endeavors. Thus cheer leaders, the baton twirlers, and the drill teams provide entertainment between halves and attempt to encourage enthusiasm for male contestants.

To justify excluding females from participation in sports, it is claimed, without evidence, that women are more prone to injury, particularly in the reproductive system.

In the schools, sex discrimination in PE and athletics is shown in a number of ways. As much as 10 times more money is appropriated for male as contrasted with female programs. Facilities, equipment, and personnel favor the male--females have the poorer gymnasium and field space, and are assigned the less favorable hours. Female coaches are paid less and expected to work longer hours. In officiating, men can handle female contests but women cannot officiate in male contests. "Women's games are usually played as 'curtain raisers' to men's contests." Arrangements for feeding and clothing athletes strongly favor the male.

Athletic scholarships are almost entirely reserved for males. Their purpose is to support interscholastic or intercollegiate competitive sports where females are seen as having no place.

Ulrich reviews a number of efforts being made to correct the inequities she describes. She notes that attitudes are beginning to change.

> Many girls do not feel unfemale as they run, climb, throw, jump, and endure. More males are daring to seek grace, poise, flexibility, and coordination in activities such as dance, synchronized swimming, and figure skating. Both males and females are participating in gymnastics, softball, volleyball, tennis, climbing, surfing, and a myriad of movement patterns...

Ulrich notes that legislation is coming to bear on removing sex discrimination in PE and athletics. In this connection, landmark provisions written into federal law are contained in Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Enforcement of the provisions for elementary school was required in 1973. In secondary and post-secondary education, enforcement is required for the 1975-76 school year. The provisions of this legislation go beyond removing discrimination in PE and athletics to cover admissions, treatment of students, and employment in any schools receiving federal financial assistance. The following excerpts, taken from a summary of Title IX in Peer Perspectives (June 9, 1975), highlights the requirements of the legislation with respect to PE and athletics.

> Courses or other educational activities may not be provided separately on the basis of sex....However, sex education is an exception: portions of elementary and secondary school classes dealing with human sexuality may be separated by sex.
>
> In physical education classes, students may be separated by sex within coeducational classes when playing contact sports.
>
> An institution which awards athletic scholarships must provide 'reasonable opportunities' for both sexes, in proportion to the number of students of each sex participating in interscholastic or intercollegiate athletics.
>
> The regulation says that no person may be subjected to discrimination based on sex in any scholastic, intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics offered by a recipient of federal education aid.
>
> Separate teams for each sex are permissible in contact sports or where selection for teams is based on competitive skill. In noncontact sports, whenever a school has a team in a given sport for one sex only, and athletic opportunities for the other sex have been limited, members of the other sex must be allowed to try out for the team.

> A school must provide equal athletic opportunity for both sexes. [Consideration will be given]...facilities, equipment, supplies, game and practice schedules, travel and per diem allowances, coaching... Equal expenditures are not required, but HEW 'may consider the failure to provide necessary funds for teams for one sex in assessing equality of opportunity for members of each sex.'

Minority-Group Discrimination in Curriculum and Instruction

Schools both reflect and reinforce discrimination against minority groups in our society. An excellent analysis of this phenomenon is given by Mildred Dickeman in her chapter, "Teaching Cultural Pluralism" contained in Teaching Ethnic Studies: Concepts and Strategies edited by James A. Banks (NEA, Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies. 43rd Yearbook, 1973). In the same volume, the chapter by Geneva Gay, "Racism in America: Imperatives for Teaching Ethnic Studies," also presents a forceful review of ways in which minority-group prejudice pervades all aspects of our society, including the schools. The entire volume is strongly recommended to anyone wishing a comprehensive treatment of the problem, including specific approaches to overcoming racial or ethnic discrimination in our schools.

In her analysis, Dickeman states: "American schools are racist by design. Their racism is part of a larger philosophy, an ethnocentric dedication to the remodelling of citizens to conform to a single homogeneous acceptable model." The model is that of the dominant middle-class, white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant culture. School texts present this model to the young, instructing them to conform to it as the route to success, or to accept the inferior status assigned to cultural minorities.

> The actors in these texts have been and still are almost exclusively members of the dominant society, Anglo-Saxon, White, English-speaking, depicted with dress, manners, customs and family roles all deemed acceptably middle class.

When ethnic differences are mentioned, "reference is made to the myth of equal opportunity and the melting pot..."

In terms of self-concept, Dickeman stresses that minority-group members either "must betray family and heritage or they must settle for socioeconomic failure." The individual's response to this conflict, Dickeman contends, is the most important determinant of school achievement. Whichever choice is made, the student's self-concept is apt to suffer.

"Life is Fun in a Smiling, Fair-Skinned World" by Otto Klineberg is an excellent survey of racial bias in children's readers. (Saturday Review, February 16, 1963.) While Klineberg's study is somewhat out-of-date, it does a dramatic job of documenting the problem of bias in one area of the curriculum. In the 15 readers examined, Klineberg found:

> The American people are almost exclusively white or Caucasian. The only exception discovered in the fifteen readers refers to a visit to a Western ranch, near which lived an American Indian family, who spend most of their time making beautiful things...to sell to the white people who came to the Indian country.

The reader treats the Indians as different and exotic: "Their names--'Big Horn,' 'Shining Star,' etc.--strike Jack, the white boy, as 'funny.'"

> The Americans in these readers are almost exclusively North European in origin and appearance. When any mention of ethnic origin appears... it is English, French (Brittany), or Norwegian. Other peoples and places are visited, including Lapland, Spain, and North Africa, but this is part of travel to foreign lands, and not part of the picture of America.

"Americans in these readers are predominantly, almost exclusively, blondes." In the readers, "Negroes are nonexistent." This is even the case in one reader where a boy and his father visit the South.

"Americans in these readers are all quite well-to-do; not exactly wealthy, perhaps, but certainly quite comfortable..." There is no poverty shown, work is readily available, and is fun.

Klineberg judges that the probable effect of the readers would be to strengthen the ethnocentric attitudes of those children sharing the characteristics of the Americans described and to make all others "feel that they do not quite belong."

Frank Riessman's article, "Digging 'The Man's' Language" (Saturday Review September 17, 1966) deals with one important form of bias in school programs. This is to ignore or reject the minority-group's "primary language" and conduct instruction solely in terms of standard English. A student's primary language may be non-English--Spanish, for example. In this case, bi-lingual instructional programs are becoming mandated. The situation is different when a student has English as the basic language, but has learned the dialect spoken in his or her cultural group. Riessman focuses his article on the problems posed when the child comes to school speaking "the language of the street" and encounters instruction that rejects this language as incorrect and not to be used at school. An illustration he offers is of the boy seeing his teacher putting on her hat and telling her, "That sure is a tough hat you got on." The teacher's reaction was to say, "Don't say 'tough.' Say 'pretty' or 'nice.'" The boy responded, "Okay, but that pretty hat sure is tough." Two consequences are almost certain to result from this sort of instruction. The student will have more trouble learning standard English if instruction is not built upon his primary language. And the student's self-concept will be damaged because of the school's rejection of his cultural roots, hence of himself.

Riessman proposes that the teacher play the "Dialect Game," where the student's vocabulary is the basis for learning the standard English equivalents. Thus, a "Hiptionary" or "Hip Workbook" was devised containing such entries as:

sky piece	-	hat, beret
fuzz	-	police
vacation	-	to be in jail

Riessman reports that this approach to learning standard English evokes the student's interest in learning "big words" and at the same time gives the student the awareness that his or her language also is valuable and acceptable.

Doubtless, if you have had experience with teaching in inner-city schools, you know of other ways in which the student's primary language can be built into the instructional program with benefit to both the student's achievement and self concept.

Objective 6. Define achievement motivation and describe one way of measuring it.

Achievement motivation refers to the strength of the individual's impulses to accomplish purposes, whether those purposes originate in him or come from others (such as teachers or employers). The drive to achieve may have as its aim economic security, success, status, or excellence in an area as exhibited by knowledge or performance.

Achievement motivation varies greatly from one area to another, though scientists including Henry A. Murray, David C. McClelland, and John W. Atkinson have developed theory and conducted research on a general drive to achieve, called by Murray need-Achievement (n-Ach.). Indeed, McClelland has conducted a massive research study on the relation between the strength of need-Achievement in various societies and their economic growth. (The Achieving Society. New York: The Free Press, 1961. Paperback.)

In elementary and intermediate schools, the chief focus is on academic achievement rather than achievement related to career, athletic, social, or other kinds of goals. In the academic area, the desire of most students to achieve varies greatly from one subject to another. In many students, the drive to academic achievement is low in all areas.

Career preparation is a strong focus in high schools as shown by sorting students into college-bound or vocational/technical programs. Here too, many students turn away from academic achievement or career preparation and show their strongest achievement motivation in athletic or social areas.

Exercise 5 invites you to examine your own achievement motivation as shown in high school or college. How strong was your motivation to achieve excellence or success in each of the areas listed? What particular forms did your motivation take in these areas? If you prefer to think through the answers rather than writing them down, that is your option.

EXERCISE 5 - WORKSHEET

Description of Personal Achievement Motivation

Directions: Under each heading below, describe your general level of achievement motivation and indicate main ways in which you expressed such motivation. If you elect not to write down your answers, that is your option. Obviously there is no answer key to this exercise.

Achievement in school subjects (in general, and in particular subjects):

Work achievement or career preparation:

Athletic achievement:

Social achievement:

Political achievement (school offices, etc.):

Creative achievement (poetry, writing, fine art etc.):

Performance in the arts (music, drama, dance, etc.):

Mastery in hobby interests (photography, radio, mechanics, stamps, etc.):

Measuring Achievement Motivation

One way of measuring achievement motivation is Sentence Completion Test by Bishwa N. Mukherjee (York University, Toronto). An individual's score on this test is the number of times he chooses a statement dealing with such aspects of achievement motivation as hope of success, high standard of excellence, preference for difficult and challenging tasks, interest in making future plans, or identification with a successful authority. The test consists of 50 items each offering three choices, one related to achievement, the other two related to other sorts of needs. The subject checks one of the three. The example given in the directions for the test is this:

I like to . . . . A. keep things neat and orderly.
B. do things for my friends.
C. undertake tasks requiring skill.

Another way of measuring achievement motivation is the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) Questionnaire developed by V. J. Crandall, W. Katkovsky, and V. C. Crandall (Child Development, 1965, 36, 91-109). The questionnaire contains 34 items, each presenting a situation and offering a choice between two alternative answers. An item (not in the test) might be:

If you can't understand a joke, is it probably
___A. because you have trouble getting jokes, or
___B. because the joke wasn't told right?

The first choice is achievement-related, the other not.

Charles P. Smith measured the level of difficulty preferred by subjects through presenting three booklets, each containing nine puzzles of increasing difficulty (mazes, "connect the dots," and scrambled words). The subject's score consisted of the number (level of difficulty) of the puzzle chosen in each booklet. ("Achievement-Related Motives and Goal Setting Under Different

Conditions", Journal of Personality, 1963, 31, 124-40.)

Atkinson and colleagues measured goal setting by a shuffleboard game in which the subjects, after practice, were given five shots from any one of fifteen distances which they chose. (Atkinson, John W., et. al. "The Achievement Motive, Goal Setting, and Probability Preferences". Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 60, 27-36.)

In preparing yourself to meet the requirements of Objective 6, you should try writing a definition of achievement motivation, comparing it with the definition given here, then single out at least one of the ways of measuring it that have been described above.

Objective 7. Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.

Achievement Competence Training (ACT) is a learning package recently developed by the Humanizing Learning Program at Research for Better Schools in Philadelphia. It is designed for use with upper-elementary students.

Two items describing ACT are included in this unit. One is a two-page description of ACT. The other consists of pages 2-10 of a brochure introducing the program materials to potential users.

In studying these materials, prepare yourself to write a brief description of the ACT package and to point out how it can help develop achievement motivation.

An article by Jerome Kagan is helpful in understanding the sources of achievement motivation. ("Motivational and Attitudinal Factors in Receptivity to Learning." In Jerome Bruner, ed. Learning About Learning. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.) The article points out three sets of factors involved in achievement motivation with respect to academic learning. Kagan points out that "there are three broad classes of goals that motivate the child's learning of academic skills." The child may learn because of the desire for "nurturance, praise, and recognition of significant others" such as parents or teachers. Also, the child may desire to emulate a model such as a teacher who places value on learning. Finally, the child may be internally motivated by the desire for competence and self-worth. It is clear that ACT stresses the third of these by teaching the child to set and achieve personally-meaningful goals. Also, of course, the teacher can support the student's motivation by offering encouragement and recognition.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ACHIEVEMENT COMPETENCE TRAINING PROGRAM (ACT)

Achievement Competence Training (ACT) is an unique program intended to assist learners in becoming self-directed. By treating children as active agents in their own development, ACT aims to promote a vital sense of internal control and self-esteem which is closely related to effective learning. ACT seeks to teach precise goal-setting and planning skills which research has linked with achievement behavior; ACT structures experiences to aid children in using those skills autonomously. Students are encouraged to transfer ACT skills to all other school activities and to activities outside school.

The ACT program is designed for use with upper elementary school children and is suitable for use with grades 5, 6, and 7. The instructional package currently available has been developed and refined in a fifth-grade setting. The ACT materials require a class mean grade-level reading score of 3.5 or higher. They have been designed to be culture, color, and gender free.

ACT consists of a sequential order of 4 units, divided into six parts each. Each unit builds upon the previous one, extending learner application of the six achievement steps: (1) self-study, (2) get goal ideas, (3) set a goal, (4) plan, (5) strive, and (6) evaluate.

The ACT package is programed on audio-tape and is designed to be used for three 45-minute periods per week for a semester. Parts are structured into lessons that can be used in 15-20 minute segments if the teacher prefers shorter periods.

ACT lessons are presented in a multi-media format, incorporating audio-tape cassettes, printed student journals, filmstrips, and games. Taped information, music, and dramatizations guide learners through the highly illustrated student journals. The journals serve as a record of personal information which

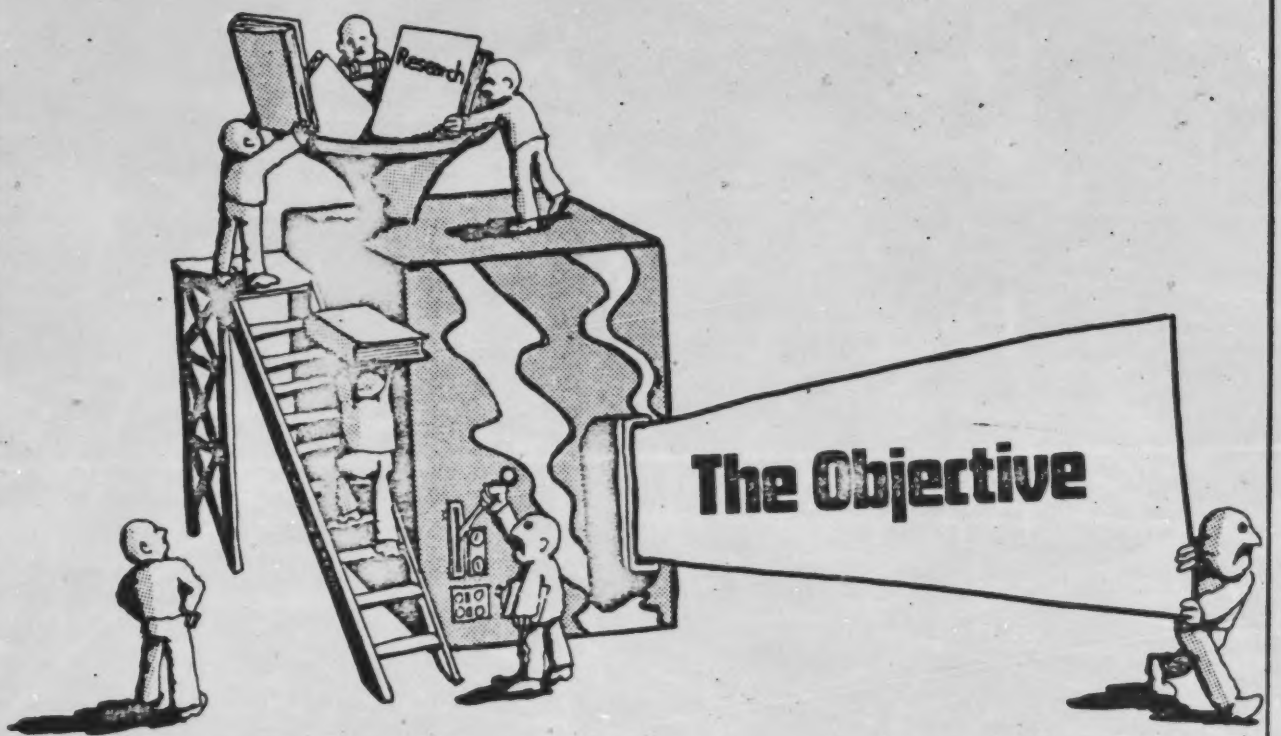
the children use to set goals. The ACT materials then teach a process which enables children to achieve these same goals. In a sense the interests of the children are a major part of the content of the materials. Additional materials not supplied but required are an audio-tape cassette player, a filmstrip projector, regular elementary school art and construction material, and a room equipped with movable furniture.

Each part of ACT presents information to the children, calls upon the student to engage in experiential activities, and requests application of information learned to real-life activities. Typically, students listen to a tape that presents concepts, engage in various activities using their own journals as directed by tape, and work individually or in small groups when the tape is turned off. Pretests and posttests are incorporated in the program at regular intervals.

Although the audio-tape leads the students through each ACT lesson, the teacher is called upon to assist in structuring many activities, to reinforce concepts, to assist individual children, and to correct some pages in the students' journals. The teachers' manual with annotated scripts for each lesson guide the teacher's participation and provide answer pages for journal exercises and tests. In addition, teachers can foster the transfer of ACT skills to other school activities and out-of-school activities by motivating students to use ACT skills outside the ACT program, and by reinforcing students' transfer of ACT skills.

ACT

Achievement Competence Training



ACT seeks to teach a behavioral strategy which will enable an individual

to become effective in setting his own goals

and

to become more competent in achieving these same goals.

LESSON 1

MY PAST ACHIEVEMENT

Remember a past achievement.
Then answer the questions below.

WHAT WAS YOUR ACHIEVEMENT?

WHY WAS IT SPECIAL?

WHAT DID YOU DO TO EARN THE GOAL?

HOW DID YOU FEEL?

STOP!

How Was Your Experience?

1. Are you feeling good right now ?

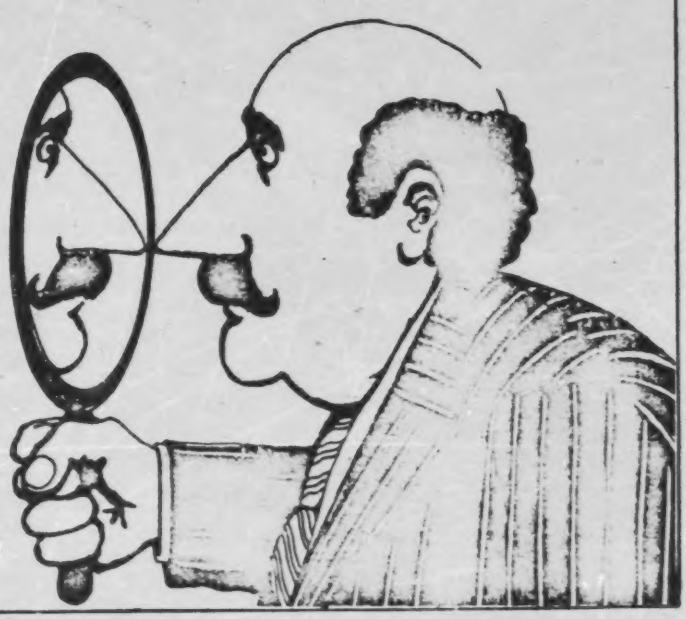
   ☐ yes ☐ no ☐ maybe

2. Have you come to know the members of your group in a more personal way?

   ☐ yes ☐ no ☐ maybe

3. Do you think it could be important or useful to remember past achievements?

   ☐ yes ☐ no ☐ not sure



BANK OF ACHIEVEMENT

PHYSICAL learning to do a backward-roll-bowing a strike-Kicking a home-run

INTERPERSONAL Help a little girl to learn to make a yarn doll I made a friend in Maine

SCHOLASTIC Getting to be a spechal speller-reading a whole book for a report- Giving a better book-report.

BANK OF ACHIEVEMENT

ARTISTIC I made a picture for the art show-I learned to play the Guttair - I got a lead part in the school play

HANDSKILLS & HOBBIES I made myself a skirt I bought a new set of glass animals for my collection.

ACT's Six-Step Strategy

1. STUDY SELF

- Recall Past Achievements
- Survey Strengths

2. GET GOAL IDEAS

- Focus on Strengths and Achievements
- Brainstorm

3. SET A GOAL

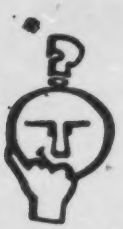
- Possible
- Specific in Time, Quantity and Kind
- Medium Risk

4. PLAN

- Name and Order Tasks
- Question Plan
- Replan

5. STRIVE

- Envision Achievement
- Recall Heroes
- Use Competition



6. EVALUATE

- Did I get my goal?
- What did I do well?
- What could I improve?
- How did I use the six steps?

LESSON 2

GET GOAL IDEAS FROM YOUR PAST ACHIEVEMENTS

ACHIEVEMENT A	ACHIEVEMENT B	ACHIEVEMENT C
Helped a little girl to learn to make a yarn doll	Getting to be a spechal speller	I made myself a skirt

GOAL IDEAS

Start an arts and crafts club	Help some friends with spelling	Sew a dress
make yarn dolls for Kids in the hospital	Teach spelling to lower grades	Start a sewing group
Teach arts an crafts to lower grades	do extra work in Spelling	make a doll dress for my sister
make yarn dolls for the church fair	write a spelling book	teach my sister to sew

STOP!

LESSON 3

DIRECTIONS:

1 CHECK YOUR GOAL IDEAS TO SEE IF THEY ARE SPECIFIC. ARE THE KIND, QUANTITY AND TIME STATED?

2 WRITE YOUR SPECIFIC GOAL STATEMENTS ON THE LINES BELOW.

GOAL STATEMENT: Sew a blue cotton dress for myself in two weeks

GOAL STATEMENT: do one extra unit of spelling each week

GOAL STATEMENT: Make 7 yarn dolls for the church fair in 2 weeks

TURN THE TAPE BACK ON WHEN YOU ARE FINISHED.

ACHIEVEMENT WORKSHEET

NAME Paula H. DATE Nov. 1972

1 GOAL SETTING

My Goal Sew a blue cotton dress for myself in two weeks

My goal is based on the following past achievement or strength.

I made myself a skirt

ACHIEVEMENT SYMBOL

2 PLANNING

Tasks in the order I must do them.

1. decide style of dress
3. buy material
4. buy thread
2. get pattern
5. cut out material
6. stitch dress

REPLANNING

New tasks or changes in tasks.

find out about size.
make sure dress fits before stitching

3 STRIVING

Striving methods I will use.

Picture myself achieving

EVALUATION CHECKLIST

EVALUATE YOUR ACHIEVEMENT FOR THIS GOAL.

1 DID I GET MY GOAL? ☑ Yes ☐ No

2 WHAT DID I DO WELL? cut out material just right

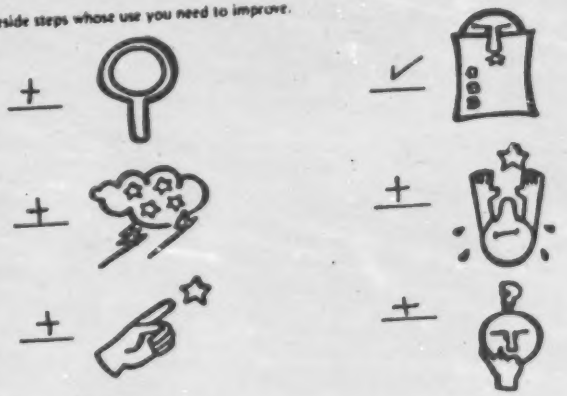
3 WHAT CAN I IMPROVE? Pick material that is easier to work with.

EVALUATE YOUR USE OF THE SIX ACHIEVEMENT STEPS.

1 Think about your use of each step in trying to achieve this goal.

2 Put a + beside the picture of steps which you used well.

3 Put a ✓ beside steps whose use you need to improve.



ACHIEVEMENT COMPETENCE TRAINING

THE SIX ACHIEVEMENT STEPS

1 Study Self	2 Get Goal Ideas	3 Set a Goal	4 Plan	5 Strive	6 Evaluate
PART 1	PART 2	PART 3	PART 4	PART 5	PART 6
UNIT 1	Learn to define achievement	Draw self achieving	Learn about ACT	Learn to work in a group	Set goals and strive in a game	Learn the six achievement steps
UNIT 2	Name past achievements	Get goal ideas from past achievements	Make goal specific	Name and order tasks	Use envisioning achievement and heroes	Decide how well you did
UNIT 3	Name personal strengths	Get goal ideas from strengths	Make goal medium risk	Replan when faced with problems	Use competition	Evaluate progress with ACT
UNIT 4	Name class strengths	Get goal ideas for your class	Select a class goal	Plan tasks for class	Strive for your goal	Evaluate class achievement

Objective 8. Describe and evaluate "contingent reinforcement" or "behavior modification" as a way of motivating students at school

A major innovation in instructional practice during the 1960's has been the development of procedures variously titled "contingent reinforcement," "reinforcement contingency," or "behavior modification." The procedures derive chiefly from the work of the Harvard psychologist B. F. Skinner whose work with teaching machines and programmed instruction has been highly influential. The approach has been developed and used particularly with children in relation to emotional disorders, remedial instruction, and control of undesired behaviors. Also it has been used to influence academic learning with regular student populations, particularly in elementary schools.

Essentially, the approach involves offering the individual "positive reinforcement" of desired behaviors in the form of attention, approval, praise, or tangible rewards while avoiding the use of "negative reinforcement" of undesired behaviors through criticism or punishment. A simple example of the approach involves the use of token rewards to induce preschoolers to come to school on time. If children are given a token (such as an M&M bit of candy) each day they arrive on time, and no token when they do not, after a short period of time tardiness is greatly reduced.

The method has been used successfully at the Learning Research and Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh to increase student learning in the Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI) program at preschool and elementary levels. A "traveling teacher" moves around the classroom where students are engaged in studying their individual lessons. If a student is found to be working at his task, the teacher offers attention or approval; if the student is not at work, the teacher passes him by without responding to him. Under these conditions, the students generally increase

their learning productivity and achieve better on posttests assessing mastery of their lessons.

A valuable description of behavior modification is "The Reinforcement Contingency in Pre-School and Remedial Education" by Donald M. Baer and Montrose M. Wolf (in Robert D. Hess and Roberta M. Bear, eds. Early Education. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1968). These authors focus on the "reinforcing effect on child behavior that might inhere in the ordinary social responses of teachers to children." The response of the teacher might be a glance, a nod, a smile, or attention in such forms as approval and affection. The form of the response should be adapted to the child since different children respond positively to different reinforcers.

If positive attending responses are offered for desired behaviors while undesired behaviors are ignored, the former increase in frequency while the latter tend to drop out. When regular positive reactions have had the effect of producing consistent desired behaviors, the frequency of reinforcing those behaviors is reduced in a sort of weaning process to the point where the child maintains the desired behaviors without requiring more than occasional reinforcement from the teacher. This is the gist of the method Baer and Wolf describe. Reading their article, if you find the time to do so, will give you a much richer view of the process as well as numerous illustrations of how it works.

An excellent general treatment of the topic of achievement motivation that is in the form of tape recording is Wilbert J. McKeachie, Motives and Learning, a McGraw-Hill Sound Seminar published in 1965 (New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company). This offers an analysis of student motivation and an examination of how the teacher can foster students' learning. If you have the opportunity to listen to these tapes it will help you evaluate contingent reinforcement as a way of increasing achievement motivation.

Educators differ widely in their evaluations of this approach to controlling or influencing students' learning. Some see the method as a 1984 device for creating a Brave New World. Others see it as a powerful method for influencing learning that is beneficial provided that the responses the teacher reinforces are chosen with the student's needs in mind rather than merely being what the teacher thinks are right or good and provided that the student is led to develop and use "intrinsic" motivation that does not depend on approval from the teacher. A feature of the method that you probably will approve is that it rejects a reliance on disapproval and punishment but instead "accentuates the positive."

One of the most extensive treatments of the subject is Behavior Modification, the 72nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, edited by Carl E. Thoresen (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973). The volume presents discussions of the philosophical and ethical bases for behavior modification, including the issue of whether this approach makes the individual overly dependent on external reinforcement rather than internal reinforcement or autonomy.

Exercise 6 invites you to think through and jot down your view of contingent reinforcement. Which of the choices offered do you agree with, and what are your reasons? (You may, of course, want to state a position different from any of the choices given.)

EXERCISE 6 - WORKSHEET

A Personal View of Contingent Reinforcement

Directions: Indicate by checking which of the views offered you agree with, or write in your own view. Then write down your main reasons for the position you take. Obviously there is no answer key to this exercise.

_____ I am generally opposed to the use of contingent reinforcement in schools.

_____ I would use it only with special groups of students.

_____ I generally favor its use with all categories of students.

Other view: _____

_____

My reasons for holding this view:

Objective 9. List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.

Three good reasons can be offered for a student being interested in the subjects he studies at school. One is that the student learns more, and more readily, when interested in a subject. Another is that interest in a subject makes it more likely that one will elect to continue studying it either at school or outside school. A third is that a student likes school better when he likes the subjects he studies.

Should every student be interested in the subjects he studies at school? Should every student like reading, literature, creative writing, mathematics, social studies, science, arts and crafts, physical education, or other subjects encountered at school? It is easy to defend a positive answer to this question since each of these subjects deals with an important area of the individual's life experience. Knowing and applying knowledge and skills in each of these subjects can contribute to one's effectiveness and satisfactions in filling various life roles--as worker, citizen, community member, family member, and private person.

The critical question concerns what and how much an individual should learn in a subject. For example, what should be a student's interests in music? It is hard to defend that every student should be expected to like classical music or be interested in learning names of composers or be able to identify symphonies. It is more reasonable to expect that every student will like some forms of music, whether folk songs, jazz, rock-and-roll, popular songs, religious music, or classical works. Also, a student should be permitted to choose his forms of musical expression--singing, playing an instrument, dancing to his preferred type of music, etc.

A good way of considering how a student's interests can be built is to think about how your interests in subjects have been influenced, either positively or negatively. Exercise 7 asks you to consider your interest - or lack of it - in the subject-matter areas covered by school subjects. Choose one area in which your interest is high, and one in which it is low, and list factors you believe to have been important in determining your reactions. Choose from among reading, literature, creative writing, social studies, mathematics, science, arts and crafts, fine arts, P.E., or other subjects. Write in your lists of factors influencing your interests in the spaces provided on the worksheet.

EXERCISE 7 - WORKSHEET

Reasons for High or Low Interest in School Subjects

Directions: Indicate a school subject of high and one of low interest to you, then list what you believe to be sources of your level of interest. There is no answer key to this exercise. Instead, study the nine sources of interest described following this Worksheet, checking your reasons against the list. (Your reasons for low interest in a subject may be opposites of items listed.)

A subject of high interest to me is _____

Some sources of my high interest are:

A subject of low interest to me is _____

Some sources of my low interest are:

There is an extensive research literature in psychology on the development of interests. However, relatively little has been done to identify factors that influence a student's interest in school or school subjects. Few studies have found clear and dependable relationships between particular school practices and the arousal of student interests. Yet a number of factors that have a high probability of favoring the development of interests can be listed with considerable confidence, based on the accumulated experience of educators as well as on psychological studies of individual development. These are identified below. How many of them did you identify as factors influencing your degree of interest in school subjects?

Factors contributing to interests in school subjects

1. Relation to life experiences. A subject at school is more likely to become interesting to a student when it is related to meaningful life experiences outside school. Thus social studies can focus on experiences had in one's community or one's social group. Also literature or social studies can relate to the high school student's emerging career interests as through reading selected biographies or through studying selected occupations.
2. Individualization of instruction. Unit 4 of this program gives a detailed analysis of how instruction can be individualized or "personalized." Critical features of individualized approaches favoring student interests concern student choices as to what he studies of a subject, when, and how. Properly, individualized instruction provides for the student's studying his own specially-designed lessons, allowing for a sense of personal involvement.

3. Mastery of learning tasks. When a student is enabled to succeed with the tasks he studies, interest is apt to be increased. Mastery is provided for in individualized approaches, allowing the slower learner to experience regular success because the tasks he studies are suited to him. With the more advanced learner, care must be taken to avoid instruction that offers cheap success by setting tasks at too low a level for him, of holding him back to match the pace of advancement of slower learners.
4. Challenge. For many students, undertaking and succeeding with challenging tasks is an important way of developing or maintaining interest in an area.
5. A project approach. There is a tradition in American education going back before John Dewey but reaching a clear definition in Dewey and other Progressives that calls for a project approach to instruction. This approach invites the student, or a group of students, to choose and conduct a task calling for investigative or creative acts leading to a solution or a product. Many if not most students find this approach more interesting than didactic presentations of learning materials through reading, lectures, or classroom discussions.
6. Applying knowledge or skills. A valuable way of increasing a student's interest in a subject is to call upon him to apply what he has learned in answering questions or solving problems relating to the "real world." Thus, if students learn about interviewing as part of their work in social studies, their interest in interviewing is apt to be increased if they perform a project in which they use interviewing to answer questions that are meaningful to them.

7. Receiving approval for accomplishments. It is a general rule that we tend to be interested in those things that are associated with approval from others whose judgments we value. On the opposite hand we tend to lose interest in those things that are associated with criticism or disapproval from others.
8. Identifying with models. One of the most powerful sources of interests is identifying with and emulating persons we admire. Very often a teacher inspires interests in a student because the student admires the teacher and adopts interests the teacher exhibits. Advertisers make heavy use of emulation as a way of inducing people to buy their products. Thus movie stars and sport figures endorse products and thereby influence people who admire them to imitate their (alleged) buying habits.
9. Emulating peer-group interests. Students in both elementary and secondary schools are strongly inclined to adopt the interests of the student groups to which they belong. Often times, a student's "in-group" rejects academic learning in preference to social activities or athletics, thus lessening the student's interests in his school subjects. The teacher's task may be to try to change the interest patterns represented by the student's in-group, or to seek to induce the student to identify with a student group that favors academic accomplishment.

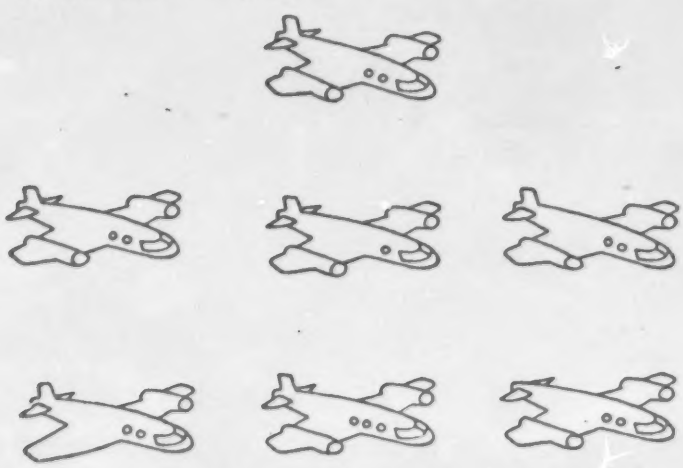
These nine sources of interest in a subject do not exhaust the list of factors influencing the development of interests. Probably you have thought of other reasons for becoming interested in a subject.

Objective 10. Define impulsivity-reflectivity as a dimension of individual behavior and describe one way of measuring it.

An important way in which students differ in their approach to learning tasks is in the extent to which they are impulsive, reacting without taking the time needed to arrive at good answers or solutions, or reflective, taking sufficient time on a task to analyze its requirements and work out an appropriate or correct solution. Impulsivity is carelessness and is associated with making errors. Reflectivity is carefulness and is associated with greater accuracy or quality of answers.

The chief researcher on impulsivity-reflectivity is Jerome Kagan, a Harvard psychologist. He and his colleagues developed a test of this dimension of individual behavior known as Matching Familiar Figures (MFF). The measure consists of two practice items and 12 test items. Each item consists of two sheets, one of which pictures an object, while the other presents six objects resembling the stimulus object with all but one differing from it in some respect. The subject is called upon to match the stimulus with that one of the six objects that is exactly similar to it. The items include a house, scissors, telephone, lamp, ship, etc. An illustrative item is presented below.

Find the one of the six objects that exactly matches the one at the top. Circle it.



The MFF test was designed for use with children in the preschool through elementary years. Scores on the test consist of response time to finally selecting the correct matching objects, total errors made, and number of items correct on the first choice. Children differ greatly in response times. Children, on the average, who are less impulsive make fewer errors. Kagan and his co-workers found that children tended to be consistent in impulsivity or reflectivity from one task to another.

If you wish to turn to the publications describing the MFF and the results obtained with it, these are key references:

Kagan, J., Rosman, B. L., Day, D., Albert, J., and Phillips, W. "Information processing in the child: Significance of analytic and reflective attitudes." Psychological Monographs, 1964, 78 (Whole No. 578).

Kagan, J. "Reflection-impulsivity and reading ability in primary grade children." Child Development, 1965, 36, 609-628.

Kagan, J. "Impulsive and reflective children." In J. D. Krumboltz (ed), Learning and the Educational Process. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965.

Objective 11. Describe one way of teaching a student to be less impulsive, more reflective, in performing learning tasks.

Assume that a student has difficulty with school tasks partly because of being hasty in giving answers without thinking the task through, without considering alternative answers, and without checking answers against the requirements of the task. Can this student be taught to slow down, and will this be helpful in succeeding with learning tasks? Jerome Kagan and his colleagues sought an answer to this question after developing the Matching Familiar Figures (MFF) test (see Objective 10 above). Their initial research studies on this question are reported in the following:

Kagan, Jerome, Leslie Pearson, and Lois Welch. "Modifiability of an impulsive tempo." Journal of Educational Psychology, 1966, 57, 359-365.

Many other studies have been conducted since their investigation of the problem. These other studies will be found referenced in Psychological Abstracts under the heading "impulsiveness".

Kagan's approach to training for reflectiveness is described here to illustrate just one way to teach children to be less impulsive. Before studying this method, it is important for you to consider how difficult it is to modify basic personality traits. Any individual's ways of reacting to situations are influenced by many thousands of experiences. Personality traits are organized into a complex personality structure where every trait is intimately intertwined with other traits. Modifying a trait is, for this reason, very much more difficult than teaching someone to overcome spelling errors or to correct a golf swing.

In the Kagan-Person-Welch study, first-grade children were used as subjects. Three similar groups made up of 20 impulsive children were chosen, each group made up of 10 girls and 10 boys. The members of the three groups all responded quickly to the MFF test items and all made many errors.

Two of the three groups were trained to be less impulsive while the third group served as a control and received no training. Children in the training groups were administered three tasks that were generally similar to the MFF test since each item in the tasks required the child to choose among several alternatives that matched, or were logically related to, a stimulus object or situation. With each training task, the experimenter required the child to delay his response to an item either 10 or 15 seconds depending on the test being given. The delay period was measured by the experimenter's stopwatch; when the period was over, the child was informed and could either indicate his answer immediately or take longer on the item. The child was instructed to study the stimuli in the task during the delay period, and to think about his answer. A child was allowed only one response per item and was not told whether that response was correct.

With one of the training groups, the experimenter also presented himself (or herself) as a model who was reflective, with the purpose of influencing the children to identify with him (her) and also be more reflective. The procedure went like this: The experimenter (E) asked the subject (S) a number of questions about the child's attributes or interests. Each time, when the child expressed something about himself ("I have a brother and a sister.") E indicated it was the same with him (her). Other questions concerned favorite foods, games, animals, etc. Finally, E summed up the interview by saying how similar he (she) was to the child and then suggested that the child might also be similar to him (her) by taking time and checking answers to avoid mistakes. The training tasks were then presented according to the procedure of requiring a time delay. During the giving of the three training tasks, the (alleged) similarity of E and S was repeatedly mentioned. With the other training group, the interview dealt with the child's attributes and interests in a similar fashion but no mention was made of the (alleged) similarities between E and S.

Following training, the two training groups and the control group were administered a new version of the MFF test (and other tests we'll not describe here). The test was given from six to eight weeks after the end of training. The results were that the two training groups, though given the MFF test by a stranger, had much longer average delays in giving answers than the control group that had not received the training. However, the training groups still made about the same number of errors as the control group; while they had learned to delay their responses, they had not learned to use the time to improve their methods of answering the items. Also, when tested on different tasks than the MFF, the response times for the training groups were about the same as for the control group.

A critical finding was that the effort to influence the children's impulsivity by getting them to identify with the experimenter as model did not have any effect. Both training groups had just about the same response times on the test given after the six- to eight-week interval following training.

In thinking about this approach to training children to be less impulsive, here are some important points to consider. (1) The habits of a lifetime, even though that lifetime is that of a six-year old, cannot be changed easily. The chief effect of the Kagan method was to get children to slow down in responding to the MFF test. This slowing down did not "transfer" to other kinds of tests. (2) Identifying with, and copying, a model is much more subtle than the method used by Kagan provided for. An adult cannot become an imitation model for a child merely by saying "I'm like you on so many ways that you should be like me in this way too." (3) Merely taking more time to give an answer is not sufficient to avoid errors if one has not learned how to use the time delay to employ an effective method of arriving at an answer. Kagan's method did not teach the children improved problem-solving approaches to use during the time before giving an answer.

Obviously, much more research is needed to work out effective ways of modifying such personality characteristics as impulsivity.

Objective 12. Describe one way of teaching students to increase their competence in self-managed learning.

There are at least three good reasons for an emphasis on student self-direction or self-managed learning in the instructional program. One is that students become more interested in their learning tasks when they have a greater hand in planning and conducting them. Another is that student self-direction makes it more likely that the student will think of what he has learned as a part of himself that is his to make use of later. A third is that, for individualized instruction to occur, there must be a stress on student self-direction in the instructional program. (Unit 4 of this training program, on Individualization, Mastery, and Student Self-Direction, points out why self-direction is essential for individualization.)

Three ways of achieving an emphasis on student self-direction are described in Unit 4 of this program. One is to provide students with instructional materials that offer them all the cues they need for performing learning tasks. Another is to have students work together, helping one another with their assignments. (This is student self-direction in the sense that, when students rely on one another, they have less need for direction and help from teachers.) The third is for students to assume the major responsibilities for planning and conducting their learning activities (and sometimes selecting their tasks, as well). This last is the critical form of self-direction as far as the development of the individual as an independent and competent person is concerned. For this reason, it should be the focus of efforts to increase students' competencies in self-managed learning.

Numerous approaches are appropriate for teaching students to manage their learning. The approach described here calls upon students to treat learning tasks as projects and to prepare specific plans for conducting them. The heart

of the approach involves teaching students a problem-solving procedure in which they analyze the requirements they must satisfy in performing the task, select a procedure for meeting those requirements, then outline the steps they will take in performing the task and in evaluating their success. The teacher should conduct class sessions in which the plans made by individual students are examined and suggestions made for improving them. When students complete their projects they should be required to offer oral or written reports on both their procedures and outcomes. The teacher should give approval for how the student went about planning, conducting, and reporting his project as well as for the results achieved.

If the method just described is unfamiliar to you, you may find Exercise 8 valuable. This exercise calls upon you to prepare for your students an example of a plan for conducting a project in high school social studies.

EXERCISE 8

Teaching Students Self-Direction in Conducting Projects

Directions: Assume that you are teaching social studies in high school and that you want to teach your students how to plan and conduct individual projects in which they investigate the attitudes of some group about a live issue such as gas rationing, air pollution, school busing, drugs, wearing mod clothes, etc.

Prepare a general outline to serve your students as a model for planning and conducting any such project. Pick a topic to serve as your illustration of the model and identify the group whose attitudes would be investigated. Then fill in your suggestions under each of the outline sections below. Compare your plan with the example given in the Exercise 8 - Answer Key.

My illustrative project topic is_____

The group to be studied is_____

1. Things to find out from the group (project requirements):

2. My plan for getting data on the group's attitudes:

EXERCISE 8 - WORKSHEET (CONT.)

3. My plan for summarizing and reporting the group's attitudes:

4. How to judge how successful the project is:

EXERCISE 8 - ANSWER KEY

Teaching Students Self-Direction in Conducting Projects

Explanation: The illustration given in this answer key offers you one way of meeting the requirements of this exercise. Obviously, there is no one right way of doing the exercise. This illustration should be helpful to you in checking your project outline.

My illustrative project topic is: Attitudes about school busing.

The group to be studied is: Mothers of children in an all-black elementary school in a large city.

1. Things to find out from the group:

   Number, age, sex, grade level of children in elementary school
   General attitude about busing to achieve racial integration
   Reasons for favoring or opposing busing
   If busing is opposed, what alternative is favored?
   If busing favored, does the age of the child make a difference?
   If busing favored, over what distance would it be acceptable?

2. My plan for getting data on the group's attitudes:

   From the school records, select a random sample of 50 families, each of which has at least one child in the primary grades and at least one in the upper-elementary grades.

   Prepare an interview outline containing a statement of the purposes of the study and containing the list of questions to be asked.

   Schedule visits to each of the 50 homes based on asking the oldest child from the family at school when his/her mother will be home.

   Conduct the visits, returning to the home if the mother is absent. Do not take notes during the interview; instead, write down the mother's answers immediately after leaving.

3. My plan for summarizing and reporting the group's attitudes:

   For each question, make a tally of responses given, or a classified list of responses (as when reasons are given).

   Analyze the data to determine whether attitudes vary with the age or sex of the child.

   Write a summary of the findings of the survey.

4. How to judge how successful the project is:

What percent of the mothers were contacted?
What percent of the mothers responded to the interview?
How fully did the mothers, in general, answer the questions?
How well did the survey show the attitudes of inner-city black mothers toward busing and the reasons for their attitudes?

Objective 13. Describe briefly the first three categories (Receiving, Responding, and Valuing) in the Affective Domain of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

A landmark event in the movement to increase the school's provisions for the student's personal/social development was the publication of Handbook II: Affective Domain of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The authors are David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, and Bertram Masia. (New York: David McKay, 1964.) Because of the very frequent references to this work, it is important that you be familiar with it. A good way of gaining this acquaintance, if you do not already have it, is to study Appendix A of the volume (pages 176-185). In satisfying this objective, you are required to become familiar with just the first three major categories of the taxonomy. The last two, Organization (of a value system) and Characterization by a Value or Value Complex have to do with the organization and elaboration of values in the individual's personality structure.

The affective domain of personality has to do with such characteristics as feelings, attitudes, interests, wishes, and values. It contrasts with the cognitive domain that concerns knowledge and intellectual skills. The two domains interact constantly. This matter is treated in Handbook II: Affective Domain in Chapter 4: The Relation of the Affective to the Cognitive Domain.

To assist you in becoming ready to offer a brief description of the first three categories of the affective domain classification, the following summary is offered to you. It has been abstracted from Appendix A.

Category 1: Receiving (Attending). "At this level we are concerned that the learner be sensitized to the existence of certain phenomena and stimuli; that is, that he be willing to receive or to attend to them." The category is divided into three sub-categories, as follows. 1.1 Awareness: This is the lowest level of attending. Thus one may note the color, form, or design of an

object. 1.2 Willingness to Receive: Here the individual is "willing to tolerate a given stimulus, not to avoid it." Thus the individual may attend when others speak, or show sensitivity to another person's needs. 1.3 Controlled or Selected Attention: Now the individual is controlling his attention "so that the favored stimulus is selected and attended to despite competing and distracting stimuli." Illustrations are listening to music with attention to its mood and meaning, or being alert to human values as "recorded in literature."

Category 2: Responding. This category concerns the individual showing interest in phenomena. It has to do with becoming "sufficiently involved in or committed to a subject, phenomenon, or activity" that one "will seek it out and gain satisfaction from working with it or engaging in it." Three sub-categories are given, as follows. 2.1 Acquiescence in Responding: This involves "compliance" or "obedience." Suggestions are reacted to without resistance or yielding unwillingly. Illustrations are "Willingness to comply with health regulations," and "Obeys the playground regulations." 2.2 Willingness to Respond. This involves "consent or proceeding from one's own choice." An illustration offered is "Acquaints himself with significant current issues .... through voluntary reading and discussion." 2.3 Satisfaction in Response: Now "the behavior is accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction, an emotional response, generally of pleasure, zest, or enjoyment." Illustrations given are "Finds pleasure in reading for recreation," and "Takes pleasure in conversing with many different kinds of people."

Category 3: Valuing. This involves "that a thing, phenomenon, or behavior has worth." "Attitudes" fall within this category. Valuing "is motivated, not by the desire to comply or obey, but by the individual's commitment to the underlying value guiding the behavior." Again, there are three sub-categories, as follows. 3.1 Acceptance of a Value: This

sub-category is generally synonymous with the term "belief." It is exhibited by "consistency of response to the class of objects, phenomena, etc. with which the belief or attitude is identified." Others can identify the individual's value, and the individual is willing to be identified with it. Examples given are "Continuing desire to develop the ability to speak and write effectively," and "Grows in his sense of kinship with human beings of all nations." 3.2 Preference for a Value: Here "the individual is sufficiently committed to the value to pursue it, to seek it out, to want it. Illustrations are "Assumes responsibility for drawing reticent members of a group into conversation," and "Deliberately examines a variety of viewpoints on controversial issues with a view to forming opinions about them: 3.3 Commitment: This sub-category can be described as "conviction" or "certainty beyond a shadow of a doubt." "Loyalty to a position, group, or cause would also be classified here." Acting out the value is involved; "He tries to convince others and seeks converts to his cause." An illustration given is "Devotion to those ideas and ideals which are the foundations of democracy."

The three categories of affective behavior, and their sub-categories, do not represent the only way to classify the affective domain. They do represent one very careful and systematic way of identifying and relating these important types of educational objectives. Educators who are concerned about planning and conducting instruction should have sufficient understanding of attention, interests, beliefs, and values to assess the extent to which a student exhibits them and to employ curricula and instructional procedures to guide the student's development and use of these attributes.

Objective 14. Define values and describe one way of teaching values in elementary or secondary schools.

Schools long have placed an emphasis on teaching values. In the public schools, formal instruction has included the teaching of values associated with membership in our democratic society. Attention also has been given to fostering such characteristics as industry, responsibility, and cooperative behavior. Parochial schools have added a stress on religious values.

Defining values is difficult and results in much disagreement. In economics, the value of a thing is measured by what it can be exchanged for. More generally, the value of a thing consists of its properties that make it desired or esteemed. Our interest in this objective is not in defining the value of things but in defining values as held by individuals. It will help us to consider first the meaning of group values. These consist of the aspects of social life (ideals, customs, institutions, etc.) toward which the people of a group have an affective regard. The values may be positive, as cleanliness, freedom, education, etc., or negative as cruelty, crime, or blasphemy. (This definition is taken from the American College Dictionary.)

A definition of values, for our purposes, is this: A person's values consist of the feelings, attitudes, wishes, beliefs, or convictions held toward the properties of a thing or event, the attributes of a person or a group, and toward abstract ideas or principles. This is a complex definition that tries to indicate two things--the ways in which values are exhibited, and the aspects of the individual's experience toward which values are directed.

A somewhat different definition of values has been offered by B. O. Smith in his article on "Teaching and Testing Values" (1965 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service). He proposes that values cover both feelings and attitudes, and evaluation or

ratings. The former are illustrated by such words as "like," "enjoy," "desire," or "hate," "disapprove," or "reject." Evaluations or ratings, on the other hand, are illustrated by "good," "bad," "beautiful," "ugly," "right," or "wrong." Smith points out that a person can have different feelings or attitudes about something than his evaluation of it. Thus he can say "This is a good book but I didn't enjoy it." Saying it is a good book is a formal evaluation; saying it was not enjoyable indicates a personal value.

One basis for planning values education is the list of six stages in the development of moral judgment presented by Lawrence Kohlberg ("Moral education in the schools: a developmental view." In David E. Purpel and Maurice Belanger, eds. Curriculum and the Cultural Revolution. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1972.) The six stages, briefly stated, are:

Stage 1. Obey rules to avoid punishment.

Stage 2. Conform to obtain rewards, have favors returned, and so on.

Stage 3. Conform to avoid disapproval, dislike by others.

Stage 4. Conform to avoid censure by authorities and resultant guilt.

Stage 5. Conform to maintain the respect of a spectator who judges in terms of community welfare "or to maintain a relation of mutual respect."

Stage 6. Conform to avoid self-condemnation.

Kohlberg presents evidence tending to show that these stages are reached at successive age levels, with Stage 6 being reached at early or mid-adolescence.

Measuring a person's values is even more difficult than defining values. Generally speaking, a person's values are revealed by what he says, or by what he does in responding to situations. What one says and what one does often are in disagreement; most people believe that what a person does gives a better indication of his true values than what he says. It is common for people to claim to have certain religious beliefs yet act in ways that are quite contradictory to their claims. Political leaders may claim to value law

and order while performing illegal acts, as Watergate demonstrates. Values are very often indicated by the choices one makes, either of giving a positive or negative response, or selecting one thing in preference to another. An important study of the values of Supreme Court justices was made by the political scientist Pritchett. He found that the votes of justices were highly predictable when a case involved a conflict between individual rights and property rights. Some justices regularly voted in favor of the individual while others voted in favor of property.

How can one teach values? Many approaches can be used. Two are presented here. You may prefer another in responding to this objective. The first approach described places emphasis on the affective, the second on the cognitive domain.

1. The teacher as model of values. Every teacher has values that can influence each student. How should this happen? A first requirement should be that the teacher accepts and respects the student as an individual person and seeks to help him realize his potential. This comes through to the student as acceptance and love. The second requirement is that the teacher represent educational values that serve as a model for the student to emulate. Through being orderly and systematic, the teacher can influence students to be likewise. Through showing respect for differences in backgrounds, views, and values, a teacher can influence students to respect such differences. Through showing respect for thinking things through, taking evidence into account, a teacher can influence students to do likewise.

A student who feels accepted and liked by his teacher, and who knows that his teacher represents and rewards certain educational outcomes, will tend to emulate his teacher. This applies to both cognitive and affective goals. Attitudes, preferences, and beliefs are profoundly influenced by emotional

attachments to others, including teachers. It is of utmost importance that the student not view his teacher as one who tries to impose personal values on students but rather helps students work out their own values. The student should always feel free to seek answers to such questions as: What am I like? What does this mean to me? Why should I think, feel, or believe this? In such an atmosphere of freedom, the teacher can be a proper model for the student, rather than a person who is seeking to impose personal values on the student.

As you consider your own experiences with teachers, can you identify some teachers who have served as positive models for you, rather than models that you have rejected either because they seemed not to accept you as a person, or because they seemed to you to be trying to impose their values on you?

2. Developing democratic values through practicing them before adulthood. An important way of developing or clarifying one's values with respect to citizenship is to study training for citizenship in cultures different from our own. This approach has been treated by Ruth Benedict, a cultural anthropologist, in an article on "Transmitting our Democratic Heritage in the Schools." (American Journal of Sociology, 1943, 48, 722-727. The article has been reprinted in Edwin Fenton, Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966.) If you cannot get hold of her article, a summary is given below.

Many primitive societies rear children for adult responsibilities thro gh making no formal distinction between child and adult worlds whereas our society tends to prolong infancy, training children and adolescents to be docile and dependent. Our schools, according to Benedict, "impose the school schedule, the subject matter, the personnel, and the forms of discipline; in all these matters the child takes what is offered." She goes on to say that many adults in our society, lacking training in self-reliance and independence, are unprepared for effective participation in democratic society. Self-reliance,

in our society, usually calls for a rather abrupt unlearning of dependence on external authority and the learning of independence based on the threat of punishment for failing to assume adult responsibilities.

Benedict's proposal is that our schools (as well as the larger society) call upon children of all ages to make choices and learn the consequences of those choices. In this way they can acquire the values and behavior appropriate to a society that rests on initiative and independence and that calls upon its citizens to supervise themselves rather than depending on external controls.

Benedict's views are mirrored in a proposal by Franklin Patterson in an article entitled "Political Reality in Childhood, Dimensions of Education for Citizenship." (National Elementary School Principal, 1963. The article is reprinted in Fenton's book, pages 72-80.) Patterson proposes as one approach to citizenship education the "study and practice of self-government." Patterson refers in particular to a group of children four to nine years old described by Marion Turner. They ..."learned to call meetings when some member created a disturbance..." "Rules, using parliamentary procedures, were made to prevent similar disturbances, and when these rules were broken the children established their own system of penalties and restraints." (See Marion E. Turner, The Child Within the Group: An Experiment in Self-Government. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1957.)

A promising new approach to values education is under development at Research for Better Schools in Philadelphia. The approach is described in "Ethical/Moral Action Instructional Program: Position Paper No. 1" by Russell A. Hill. The following excerpts are taken from this paper to give a general description of the program that is being developed and tested.

The program's essential values are:

Self: The individual should value self, self-growth, and self well-being.

Other individuals: The individual should respect the existence, worth, and well-being of others.

Objectivity: The individual should value objectivity as represented by empiric descriptions of reality.

The three second-level values derived from the above are:

Society: Individuals should value the welfare of the social community.

Justice: Individuals should value justice for all individuals equally.

Mercy: Individuals should value mercy for all individuals equally.

The overall instructional objective of the ethical/moral program is to teach the learner to use a behavioral strategy which leads to actions consistent with his regard for the values of self, others, and objectivity.

The program strategy consists of six steps. These are:

1. Value-Naming: Naming, clarifying, enlarging, and systematizing personal values; considering the importance of these values in light of one's current or past actions.

2. Get Action Ideas: Formulating ideas for new actions that might further personal values; identifying actions that would further personal values when given an appropriate situation; identifying situations where action would violate one's values.

3. Make Ideas Workable: Making action ideas functional: possible specific, personally moderate risk; translating broad, abstract actions into concrete, actionable events; resolving conflicts between value choices.

4. Consider Others: Identifying others who will be affected by the proposed action (i.e., peers, family, community, bystanders); role-taking to identify the potential benefit or harm to others through action or nonaction; identifying personal consequences both functionally and affectively; using decision-making skills to choose between conflicting values and actions....

5. Act: Making a commitment to action; planning for the action; resolving to act when given an appropriate situation; persisting; completing action.

6. Reflect: Evaluating how effectively the action furthered the original value; evaluating the effect of the action on others and self; assessing responsibility for the outcome; weighing one's further commitment to the original value; deriving principles for future action from similar situations.

> The 13- to 14-year olds of junior high school level are the target population of the program.... Educators and psychologists alike note that this is the age of preoccupation with self: the need to know who one is, what one believes in, what one values, what one wants out of life.

This program, and others being developed elsewhere, represent the growing importance educators are assigning to values education. The strains and uncertainties involved in our rapidly changing society have forced attention to the critical need for developing in each individual ethical and moral values that both serve the interests of the self and of fellow human beings.

Objective 15. Define empathy and describe one way of teaching students empathy toward members of groups differing from themselves.

While teaching students to appreciate others who are different from themselves has received attention in the schools for a long time, this has been given much greater emphasis during recent years because of concerns for minority groups in our society, the "culturally-different." A term to identify this sort of recognition of differences is "empathy."

A dictionary definition of empathy is "entering into the feeling or spirit of a person; appreciative perception or understanding of others." The German language has a similar term that is quite expressive; it is "Einfuhlung" translatable as "in-feeling." The word "sympathy" is related but it goes further by calling for being in accord or agreement with another's values or feelings. Empathy does not require such agreement; rather, it requires perceiving or understanding others without necessarily agreeing with them or sharing their values or feelings.

How can empathy toward people who are different from oneself be taught in schools? Probably you already are familiar with some approaches that have been used. In case approaches do not come readily to your mind, three are described below.

1. Role playing experiences of other groups. This method is frequently used to help students understand and feel what it is like to be a member of a group differing from themselves in some important way. Thus students role play being blind by wearing a blindfold for an hour or two and trying moving about, finding things, and manipulating things without the aid of sight. Following the experience, they discuss it. A role-play approach to being a member of a rejected minority group is for the teacher to sort students by eye color or hair color, then assign one group as accepted, the other as rejected.

The roles are then reversed to give both groups the experience of being rejected. A discussion follows. It is evident that such brief simulations have limitations for teaching empathy; they not only are unreal, but they are all too brief. Nevertheless, they have value.

2. Sharing experiences with members of culturally-different groups. This is the method of setting up schools and classes that are heterogeneous or "integrated" through containing members of different cultural groups--black and white, upper-class and lower-class, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, etc. Through sharing school tasks, extra-curricular activities, and social encounters at school, members of each group can come to understand and appreciate members of other groups. There is no guarantee that such experiences in common will lead to mutual acceptance. Members of different groups may come to know each other better without liking each other. Skilled leadership from teachers and school administrators is needed to make the inter-group associations positive and constructive. The models offered by leaders of the peer groups also are vital since otherwise group rivalries and hostilities can even be intensified by increased association.

3. Study of culturally-different groups. Empathy can be taught by systematic study of culturally-different groups. Introducing into the curriculum materials that give a fair depiction of the backgrounds, folkways, and contributions of various cultural minorities can make a major contribution to enabling students to empathize with members of other groups. Participating in community studies involving different cultural groups can be a highly-valuable way of learning to empathize with them, particularly if members of the cultural group being studied take part.

Objective 16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.

A teacher who is effective in influencing the inner-city student's personal/social (as well as intellectual) development needs to understand and appreciate (that is, empathize with) the student's cultural background and characteristics as influenced by that background. Also, to relate effectively with inner-city students, the teacher needs to possess self-awareness and self-understanding that allows an answer to the question, "How does what I am influence them?"

Beginning in 1967, the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory in Kansas City, Missouri undertook a program to train senior education majors to teach inner-city children at the elementary or secondary level. By 1972, over 1000 teachers had received the one-semester training program.

A description of the Cooperative Urban Teacher Education (CUTE) program is as follows. "The one-semester program is based on the assumptions that a prospective teacher would be better prepared to teach in inner-city schools if he: (a) understood both his own and his pupils' attitudes, insecurities, anxieties and prejudices; (b) understood both his own and his pupils' environment and culture; and (c) was competent in reflective teaching methods for inner-city learners. The interdisciplinary instructional staff for the program included a mental health specialist, a sociologist, and teacher educators."

A critical part of the program, involving student teaching in an inner-city school, is study of the inner-city culture. The following excerpt from the 1969 Curriculum Guidelines for the program indicates topics and field experiences related to developing an understanding and appreciation of the inner-city and of children growing up there.

Student Teacher Sociological Guide
to Inner-City Education

PART I--SOCIOLOGICAL ORIENTATION TO THE INNER CITY

A. Terms

The following is a list of terms that should be a part of your vocabulary as you study the inner city. Write in your own words the sociological meaning of these concepts based on class discussion and from your reading material. Illustrate these concepts by citing observations you have made of the urban area.

1. Centralization
2. Decentralization
3. Ethnic
4. Human ecology
5. Inner city
6. Invasion
7. Racial
8. Segregation
9. Succession

B. Field experiences

1. Visit at least three different types of institutions and/or agencies (e.g. store front churches, local hangouts, community centers, etc.). Interview the director or officers about the neighborhood, its occupants, and the services the agency performs. Write a report on your observations and turn in to the office in one week.
2. Collect articles from the news media that refer to the inner city. Specifically look for articles that discuss various problems

encountered in the inner city. (discrimination, education, law enforcement, civil rights, etc.)

3. Contact your community center. Begin programs (e.g., tutoring, recreation projects, etc.)
4. Begin census study of neighborhood school district. Using census tract data compute the following information:
   (a) Number of white, Negro, foreign-born, Mexican, and total.
   (b) Percent of non-white, Negro, foreign-born, and Mexican.
   (c) Percentage of families with less than $3000, percentage of families with less than $6000, and median total income.
   (d) Percentage of manual workers in the following categories: unskilled, semi-skilled, and skilled.
   (e) Median of school years completed.
   (f) Total number of persons under 18, and percentage of persons under 18. Percentage of persons under 18 living with both parents.
   (g) Number of persons living more than five years in the area.
   (h) Percentage: housing units deteriorating, housing units dilapidated, overcrowded homes, and units renter occupied. Median contract rent.

INSTRUCTIONS: Compute data for all census tracts in the school district in which your school is located. Compute the whole census tract even though only part of the tract may be in the school area boundaries. You may also compute each census tract separately. However, when presenting a final report, give the overall impression of the entire school area. This assignment is due the fourth week of the program.

C. Reading assignments

1. Articles: Part II of Reading Package

2. Book: Society and Education (Stalcup, R. J.)

PART II--SOCIAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

A. Terms

Write definitions of the following terms and indicate the significance these concepts may have to education. If possible, provide examples from your assigned schools.

1. Bureaucracy
2. Role
3. Status
4. Social system
5. Role conflict
6. Bureaucratic role vs. professional role
7. Formal relationships
8. Informal relationships
9. De facto segregation

B. Field experiences

1. Observations in assigned school.

(a) Observe your cooperating teacher and describe the extent to which he fulfills the following teacher roles:

Mediator of learning: Attempts to change pupils' behavior toward socially approved behavior; knows what is to be taught and how; and has organized and structured behavior.

Disciplinarian: Keeps a well-ordered classroom through domination of student or positive rapport with pupils.

Parent substitute: Displays affection for pupils by helping child with clothing, praising or censuring social or emotional behavior.

Judge: Displays authority to make decisions.

Confidant: Displays a friendly relationship with pupils.

Surrogate of middle-class morality: Not only teaches but expects the child to display characteristics of middle-class morality.

(b) Observe and describe any situation which gives the appearance a teacher feels caught up in a system that leaves him powerless. How does he react?

(c) Describe how you think the principal of your school perceives his role in the system. This may involve a personal interview with him.

(d) Observe and describe situations where there is conflict between the teacher and principal. What was the nature of this conflict and how was it handled?

(e) Observe and describe particular situations in your school where the informal structure is operating in direct contradiction to the formal structure.

(f) Observe and describe the formation of differing informal cleavages between teachers. What purposes do these cleavages serve?

(g) Describe the extent to which various teachers in your school participate in local community activities.

(h) Describe your school in terms of conditions, staff problems, and community attitudes.

2. Continue working in the community center. In two weeks hand in a report describing your activities.

C. Assignments (reading)

Books: None

PART III--THE CULTURE OF THE INNER CITY

A. Concepts

Write definitions of the following terms and explain how each can be useful in understanding the poor.

1. Stratification
2. Ascribed status
3. Achieved status
4. Social class
5. Life styles
6. Life chances
7. Values
8. Culture
9. Subculture
10. Prejudice
11. Discrimination
12. Assimilation
13. Cultural pluralism
14. Poverty.

B. Field experiences

1. Attend church services in the inner city and write a description of your experiences. (Include store-front churches as well). What

functions do you think the church provides for inner-city people? In addition, vary your experiences so you will attend church services representative of the major subcultures.

2. In order for you to "get a feel" for the area served by your school, you are to perform the following tasks:

   (a) Visit the home of at least one parent on some school-related problem, or visit the home of at least one parent of a youth you work with in a community center.

   (b) Visit at least one community organization (e.g., Congress of Racial Equality, Tenant Council, neighborhood improvement organization, Council for United Action, etc.), and interview the club officers about needs and characteristics of the local people and the functions of the organization.

   (c) Attend a meeting of at least one community organization and write a report on what happened. If possible, make it an organization you have previously visited.

   (d) Perform some of the following (as many as you can) routine activities you do, but in your school district areas: Go to a barber, hairdresser, cafe or restaurant, lounge, grocery store, laundromat, drive-in-restaurant, merchandising store. Write a report on your observations, impressions, and conversations.

   (e) Describe your neighborhood in terms of the following characteristics:

   --Policing patterns; especially attitudes of policemen

   --Services being performed for community (public service, deliveries, garbage, street cleaning, etc.)

--Buildings (apartments, houses, industrial, or residential, commercial types such as grocery, second-hand, others).

--Transportation facilities

--Activities of residents (e.g., what are they doing?)

--Where residents work

--Racial make-up?

--Stability of the neighborhood

--Age of people

--Noisy or quiet?

--What do people want?

--Types of recreational facilities?

3. Pose as an unemployed citizen of Kansas City and attempt to get a job at one of the employment bureaus.
4. Live one week on the amount of money designated by welfare for one person.

C. Assignments

1. Articles: Part III, Section A, B, and C.
2. Books: The Urban Villagers (Gans, H.), Mexican-American Youth (Heller, C.), and Crisis in Black and White (Silberman, C.)

PART IV--A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO TEACHING THE INNER-CITY CHILD

A. Concepts

Define the following terms.

1. Culturally disadvantaged or deprived
2. Learning styles
3. Teaching strategies

B. Field experiences

1. Continue working in community centers and making observations in the school neighborhood.

C. Assignments

1. Books: Urban Disadvantaged Pupils (McCloskey, E. F.), The Culturally Deprived Child (Riessman, F.), and Negro Self-concept (Kvaraceus, W.)
2. Select five cultural traits of the poor and show how you would develop a teaching strategy utilizing these traits to promote more effective learning.

PART V--SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION OF THE INNER CITY

A. Concepts

Define the following terms.

1. Social disorganization
2. Delinquency
3. Social deviance

B. Field experiences

1. Each of you will be assigned to work one week in the juvenile detention home from 3 p.m. to 8 p.m. During this time you will be teaching the youth as well as interacting with them in more informal ways.
2. Each of you will participate in one day observations at the Western Missouri Mental Health Clinic. This is primarily a clinic serving maladjusted pupils from the inner city.

C. Assignments

Books: Delinquent Behavior: A Redefinition Of The Problem (Martin, J. M., & Fitzpatrick, J. P.)

A 1971 description of the program (D&R Report, Vol. 1, No. 7) contains the following additional information in an article entitled "Inner City Success." The Wichita, Kansas Public Schools worked with McREL to retrain existing staffs of "clusters" of inner-city schools. "A cluster is a city neighborhood containing all the elementary and junior high schools that feed into a particular high school. Teachers from each cluster receive twenty hours of instruction in staff awareness. The teachers learn to relate to pupils and parents and one another. Promoting school staff unity and helping the student to develop a self-concept are primary objectives. Teacher behavior is explored from a psychological point of view using role playing, seminar discussion, and unique terminology describing human behavior. One Wichita junior high school, in its second year of participation in the workshops, was the only inner-city junior high school with no incidence of racial unrest or violence during the 1970-1971 academic year. And the school's absenteeism decreased 50 percent from the previous year."

Objective 17. Describe how the group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.

An important way in which the schools can influence the student's development of social competencies is to make extensive use of the group project approach. In any curriculum area, there are numerous learning tasks that are suitable for group projects. Here are some examples. (You doubtless will think of others.)

-Planning, conducting, and judging a debate on some issue (English or social studies)

-Planning, conducting, and reporting an opinion survey (social studies)

-Surveying an area of one's community and mapping it (social studies or math)

-Writing a brief biography of some living person (English or literature)

-Experimenting on factors in the rate of plant growth (science)

-Planning and presenting a musical program using records (music)

Ordinarily, the project group should be small, with three, four, or five students being about the right size. Sometimes, of course, larger groups are needed as when an entire class presents a play in which different students assume roles as actors, directors, set designers, stage managers, publicity directors, etc.

A project that is suitable for a group approach should allow for several roles to be assumed by individual students. One student can be assigned as group leader or manager, another as chief planner, another as recorder, and perhaps another as reporter with the responsibility of preparing a written or oral report on the project. The teacher's job is to ensure that each student learns to perform different group roles in ways that contribute to the team project. Also, the teacher needs to teach the students how to do group planning in laying out a clear set of sub-tasks and procedures that provide for each group member's contributions to the total effort. It is particularly

important that students not be dominated or pushed aside by other students because they are less skillful, slower, submissive, or withdrawn. The teacher's task is to focus on students who lack certain interpersonal competencies. One way to do this is set up project groups to ensure that less competent students receive the opportunities, help, and encouragement they need for improving their interpersonal competencies.

A valuable type of training approach for developing group skills is represented by the Russell Sage Social Relations Test developed by Doris Damrin (Journal of Experimental Education, 1959, 28, 85-99.) In this test, there are three construction-type problems. "For each problem the children are provided with thirty-six interlocking construction blocks of various shapes and colors and a model which they are to copy exactly. All thirty-six blocks are necessary for the construction of each model ..." The three models are the figure of a house, a footbridge, and a dog. The project group is made up of members who have not worked together previously. They are simply handed a copy of the model and a pile of 36 blocks and instructed to work together to complete the figure as quickly as possible, with time the measure of the group's success. The group can take as much time as it wishes in planning how to construct the model. The time score begins with the start of actual construction.

Damrin's measures of planning behavior include observations of participation and involvement of group members, communication among group members, autonomy or independence of the group without help from the examiner, organizational techniques, and the quality of the final plan. Measures of behavior during the construction of the model deal with involvement, group atmosphere, activity of non-participants in the group task, and success of the group.

This sort of task can be used to help students develop group skills by having home-made assembly tasks, by assigning one group in a class to plan and perform the task, by having other class members serve as observers, and then having a total-class discussion of the activity.

Objective 18.	Specify shortcomings of instruction in the traditional secondary school with respect to students' personal/social development and describe one innovative approach to remedying them.

Numerous critics of the schools recently have written articles and books in which they present evidence that traditional school practices are hostile to sound personal and social development in students. Charles E. Silberman in Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970) writes a Chapter 4 under the title "Education for Docility." Jonathan Kozol presented his attack on traditional elementary schools under the title Death at an Early Age (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967). Paul Goodman entitles his attack on the schools Compulsory Mis-Education (New York: Horizons Press, 1964). Edgar Z. Friedenberg offers his analysis and critique of secondary schools in his Coming of Age in America (New York: Random House, 1965). His Chapter 2, "The Cradle of Liberty," is a particularly devastating report on two high schools.

Exercise 9 asks you to list common faults of instruction and of the social climate of secondary schools with respect to students' sound personal and social development. In arriving at your answers, consult you own experience with secondary education with yourself as student, as parent, or as educator. You may wish to turn also to one or more of the references cited above. Silberman's chapter on "Education for Docility" and Friedenberg's on "The Cradle of Liberty" will prove especially helpful. On the worksheets, identify common faults under the categories of personal/social development listed. In any of these categories, you may wish to identify faults that have a particular relation to slow learners, members of minority groups, or female students. An answer key is provided giving suggested lists of faults for your use in checking your answers.

EXERCISE 9 - WORKSHEET

Common Faults of High Schools re Personal/Social Development

Directions: In the spaces below, jot down common faults of traditional secondary schools with respect to students' personal/social development. When you complete the exercise, check your answers against those offered in the Answer Key.

Faults concerning developing a positive self-concept:

Faults concerning the development of interests:

Faults relating to developing competencies in self-direction:

Faults concerning the development of students' values:

Faults related to developing empathy with others:

Faults related to developing interpersonal skills:

EXERCISE 9 - ANSWER KEY

Common Faults of High Schools re Personal/Social Development

Explanation: The following points you might have included in your lists of faults of high schools under the six categories in the exercise. The answers offered here are not meant to be either authoritative or complete.

Faults concerning developing a positive self-concept:

For the majority of students, instruction is conducted in a way that makes failure a common experience.

Individuality tends to be discouraged in a program that is conducted with classes, not individuals.

Students are generally treated like children who must be regimented, restricted, controlled.

There is an extreme lack of privacy, even in toilets.

Rules and punishments tend to deny the student dignity as a person.

Classroom discipline emphasizes rejecting the person rather than merely the behavior.

Members of minority groups tend to be rejected, openly or by the silent treatment.

Slow learners and rebellious students are assigned to the slow tracks.

Faults concerning the development of interests:

Instruction often emphasizes drill and memorization that discourage developing interests.

There is a lack of emphasis on tying subjects into the student's life experience.

Students generally must assume a passive role at school, learning by being told or by reading texts rather than by conducting individual or group projects.

Students have little choice as to what they study in most curriculum areas.

Faults related to developing self-direction:

Students generally have few choices with respect to their learning tasks.

Students are given limited opportunities to plan and conduct their learning tasks independently of teacher direction.

Generally, slow learners are treated as though they are incapable of any degree of self-direction. Project activities generally are restricted to advanced students.

Faults concerning the development of student values:

Attempts to teach values generally are authoritarian: "You should feel, believe this..."

The values stressed at school generally are adult values (which most adults don't practice).

Schools pay little attention to the analysis of values.

Schools usually do not accept differences in values as appropriate; they do not allow for the student choosing his own values.

Faults related to developing empathy with others:

The curriculum tends to ignore or reject minority groups and cultures.

Instruction, even in social studies, usually gives little attention to learning to understand and appreciate other groups than one's own.

There is usually no formal attention paid to providing association with members of other groups or cultures that would encourage developing empathy.

Faults related to developing interpersonal skills:

The schools emphasize the student's relations to teachers rather than to fellow students.

The curriculum gives little attention to the study of social relationships in our society or in other societies.

Even when group projects are conducted, there usually is no formal instruction in group planning, in filling various roles in a group, or in communication within a group.

Schools use student government as an arm of the administration to impose conformity rather than as a setting for learning effective inter-personal inter-group attitudes and behavior.

How can the faults of traditional secondary schools in relation to personal/social development be corrected? Two approaches are described here. The first is that employed at John Adams High School in Portland, Oregon as described in a series of articles in the May 1971 issue of Phi Delta Kappan. This school undertook a major innovative approach intended to correct shortcomings in its program. If you have access to the issue of the magazine, you should read the articles. Otherwise, the abbreviated description given below will give you the main features of the approach.

Allen L. Dobbins' article describes "Instruction at Adams." The following capsule summary of his article gives the flavor of his account, though sketchily. The general education program is the heart of the new program. "The overall aim of general education is to provide students with a base of knowledge and a set of communication skills that will be useful to them now as well as when they enter college or the world of work." In general education, the student explores contemporary or historical problems, issues, or topics. There is an "action component" that allows students to learn outside the school. Problems studied include air and water pollution, slum conditions, and urban renewal.

General education is conducted through team teaching, each student being assigned to one of seven teams made up of about 200 students, grades nine through 12. Each team works with a counselor, a clinical supervisor, and perhaps a social worker in training. Except for physical education and health, general education is the only required course. In addition to general education, a wide range of elective courses is available. Students elect two or three of these each year.

The initial year of the innovative program offered all students a high level of responsibility for planning and conducting their own learning programs. This proved to be well-suited to the capabilities of the "highly

individualistic and creative student" who felt stifled by the traditional regimentation of the secondary school. However, a good many students did not respond well to the freedom offered them, preferring more direction from the staff. As a result, during the second year of the program, a basic skills department was created, focusing on communication and computation skills and setting tight controls on attendance and work. This alternative program proved popular with a large number of students who, evidently, felt that the traditional program did not do a good job of giving them the basic intellectual competencies provided for in the skills program.

Patricia A. Wertheimer's article describes the program at Adams in terms of "School Climate and Student Learning." She states the school's aim in this way: "Our goal was active student participation in educational decision making, both in guiding their individual progress and in shaping the school curriculum..." To accomplish this, reliance was placed on student freedom and choice of course content, and on close student-teacher relationships.

When the program got under way, the school atmosphere was like this: "The halls were bustling with students much of the day, students called most teachers by their first names, students and teachers frequently lunched together, and a relaxed friendliness pervaded halls and classrooms."

Interviews with students in December and May of the first year of the new program revealed that a high percentage of them greatly appreciated the freedom they enjoyed and their close relationships with teachers. However, there were complaints from numerous students about other students' time wasting, rowdiness and fighting. Many students evidently did not know how to use the freedom offered them, needing more rules and discipline. Also, many students found themselves unable to learn successfully in a relatively unstructured curriculum where they were expected to take a major role in

deciding what they would study and in carrying on their work independently.

The experience of John Adams High School with the new program during its first two years clearly indicates, either that alternative programs need to be provided for students requiring different amounts of structure and guidance, or that many students must be taught how to use the increased freedom such a program offers. One innovative high school that has used alternative programs successfully for over a decade is at Melbourne, Florida where a "multi-phase" program offers the student different degrees of independence, with the privilege of applying for as high a level of independence as his capabilities or maturity permits. (See B. Frank Brown, The Nongraded High School, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963.)

A second and quite different approach to improving the high school with respect to students' personal/social development is described by R. A. Mosher and N. A. Sprinthall under the title, "Psychological Education in Secondary Schools: A Program to Promote Individual and Human Development." (American Psychologist, 1970, 25, 911-924. A similar article by these authors appeared in Harvard Graduate School of Education Bulletin, 1971, 15, 16-22.) If you do not have access to either of these articles, the following abbreviated summary will give you the gist of the approach.

These authors developed a set of courses on individual and human development to be taught to high school juniors and seniors. Students elect one of a number of laboratories, or experience-based courses in psychology and the humanities. The following excerpt describes these laboratories.

> Improvisation Drama involves the student in the exploration, through theatre improvisation and drama, of his own and others' behavior. The Psychology of Interpersonal Behavior is an intensive experience in a self-analytic group and group process. A Laboratory in Teaching involves the teaching of children (and adults) in a variety of settings (e.g., institutionalized mentally retarded children, normal elementary school children, geriatric patients in a mental institution). A Seminar and Practicum in Counseling involves studying theory and practice of

counseling and, under supervision, counseling younger adolescents. Communication and the Art of the Motion Picture is the study of films (e.g., "The Quiet One," "The Childhood of Maxim Gorky," "Torero!" "On the Waterfront," "The Weapons of Gordon Parks") about adolescents or young children done with intense realism. A Laboratory in Child Development and Child Care involves studying the psychology of child development in conjunction with operating a nursery school.

The authors state three purposes of each laboratory, as follows: (1) to teach material from psychology and/or the humanities which is pertinent to an understanding of individual and human development; (2) to give the student systematic personal experience and responsibility--for example, in teaching, counseling. child care--relevant to his formal study in psychology or the humanities; and (3) to have the student consider or make conscious what he learns about himself from his formal study and, most important, from his experience in the laboratory.

Tryouts of the program with 15 classes indicated to the authors that the purposes of the program were being achieved, at least with many students. Thus the Harvard faculty members judged "that the top half of the high school class was more effective in counseling than was the bottom of their graduate class in guidance."

To satisfy the purposes of this objective, study the two approaches and prepare yourself to describe one of them (or yet another approach of your choice), pointing out how it seeks to correct shortcomings of traditional high school programs with respect to such personal/social characteristics as positive self-concept, interests, self-direction, empathy, and interpersonal skills.

Objective 19. Observe and analyze instruction using a checklist of features related to personal/social development.

If you have the opportunity, it will be valuable for you to investigate a school program to strengthen your understanding of how schools can influence, positively or negatively, students' personal/social development. If you can, it will be especially desirable to compare a traditional and an innovative program.

Choose either an elementary or a secondary school for study. Probably social studies is the best area for your analysis since this is the area where, traditionally, such topics as personality, values, empathy, and interpersonal relations are treated.

You will need permission from the school's principal and from the teachers whose classes you will visit. If you study a high school, information from guidance counselors should be sought also. In explaining the purpose of your study, you should indicate that you wish to learn how the school and its program can influence the personal and social development of students. Indicate that you will need to get your data through interviewing staff members, examining learning materials and instructional arrangements, and observing instruction.

The worksheets for this exercise provide for describing the conduct of your study and for reporting your findings on a checklist. Two copies of the worksheets are included. You may want to use them to compare instruction given by the same teacher in two subject areas, to compare instruction in the same area as given by two different teachers, or to compare instruction in the same subject as conducted within a traditional and an innovative program.

Performing this exercise probably will require at least one day of your time. (Obviously, this will only introduce you to the analysis of instruction

in terms of personal/social development.)

Time limitations probably will restrict your study to two classrooms. A good plan, if you can arrange it, is to compare instruction in social studies employing a traditional and an innovative approach. If this cannot be arranged, studying the instruction offered by two teachers may be feasible. In the latter case, you must be careful not to place yourself in the role of evaluating teachers. Instead, your evaluative judgments should be stated in relation to features of the instructional program rather than as evidence of teachers' strengths or weaknesses.

EXERCISE 10 - WORKSHEET

Descriptive Data on Class Observed to Study Instruction as Related to Students' Personal/Social Development

Directions: Please fill in the data below for each class you observe.

School district_____ School_____

Curriculum area(s) observed_____

Grade level(s) observed_____ Number of students_____

Date_____ Period observed: From_____ To_____

Description of learning materials used (texts, magazines, library, etc.):

Description of instructional setting, arrangements:

Description of instructional methods used (lecture, class discussion, film, independent study, group project, etc.):

Checklist on Instruction as Related to Students' Personal/Social Development

Directions: Answer each item Yes or No unless you obtained no evidence on it; in

CONCERNING DEVELOPING SELF-CONCEPTS

1. Were students free to move around and to go out of the room? Yes__No__?__

2. Were there provisions for reasonable student privacy? Yes__No__?__

3. Did most students get individual attention during the session? Yes__No__?__

4. Were nearly all students able to master their learning tasks? Yes__No__?__

5. Was discipline maintained by positive, friendly controls? Yes__No__?__

6. Were slower learners sorted into low groups or classes? Yes__No__?__

7. Were any children rejected by students or by the teacher? Yes__No__?__

Other self-concept related influences:

CONCERNING DEVELOPING INTERESTS

8. Was instruction tied in with students' life experiences? Yes__No__?__

9. Was active learning emphasized over drill and memorization? Yes__No__?__

10. Were students allowed to pursue their individual interests? Yes__No__?__

Other interest-related influences:

CONCERNING DEVELOPING SELF-DIRECTION

11. Were students given opportunities to choose learning tasks? Yes__No__?__

12. Did students work on individual or group projects? Yes__No__?__

13. Were slower learners permitted to work on projects? Yes__No__?__

14. Did the teacher offer instruction in self-direction? Yes__No__?__

Other self-direction related influences:

CONCERNING DEVELOPING VALUES

15. Was attention given to student rather than adult values? Yes__No__?__

16. Did the teacher use models to influence students' values? Yes__No__?__

17. Did the teacher encourage analyzing and comparing values? Yes__No__?__

18. Did the teacher accept students holding different values? Yes__No__?__

Other value-related influences:

CONCERNING DEVELOPING EMPATHY

19. Did the curricular materials recognize cultural differences? Yes__No__?__

20. Were other cultural groups studied and compared? Yes__No__?__

21. Were associations with other cultural groups arranged? Yes__ No__ ?__

Other empathy-related influences:

CONCERNING DEVELOPING INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

22. Were students given opportunities to learn or use group skills? Yes__ No__ ?__

23. Was there evidence of student participation in classroom management? Yes__ No__ ?__

24. Was there study of topics in social relationships? Yes__ No__ ?__

Other interpersonal-related influences:

Your Summary of Positive or Negative Aspects of Curriculum or Instruction as Related to Students' Personal/Social Development:

POST-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE - UNIT 6

Directions: This exercise is the same as the Pre-Assessment Exercise which you completed at the beginning of your study of this unit. Review your estimates of mastery of the items in the Pre-Assessment Exercise (pages 12-13); you need to do only those items on the Post-Assessment Exercise which you judged you did not answer satisfactorily. Then check your answers with the Pre/Post Assessment Exercise - Answer Key.

Objective 1. Justify stressing the student's personal/social development in the school instructional program.

Objective 2. Define self-concept and describe two ways to measure it.

Objective 3. Describe an approach to fostering positive self-concepts through offering students acceptance and approval.

Objective 4. State how individualized and mastery-referenced instruction can contribute to positive self-concepts.

Objective 5. Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members.

Objective 6. Define achievement motivation and describe one way to measure it.

Objective 7. Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.

Objective 8. Describe contingent reinforcement as a way to motivate students.

Objective 9. List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.

Objective 10. Define impulsivity-reflectivity as a dimension of personal behavior.

Objective 11. Describe one way of teaching students to be less impulsive.

Objective 12. Describe one way to teach students self-managed learning.

Objective 13. Describe briefly the categories of Receiving, Responding, and Valuing in the Affective Domain of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Objective 14. Define values and describe one way to teach values to students.

Objective 15. Define empathy and describe a way to teach empathy toward members of groups differing from one's own.

Objective 16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.

Objective 17. Describe how a group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.

Objective 18. Describe shortcomings of traditional school programs with respect to students' personal/social development and describe a way to remedy them.

PRE/POST ASSESSMENT EXERCISE - ANSWER KEY

Obj. 1. Justify stressing the student's personal/social development in the school instructional program.

Stresses on the individual caused by our rapidly changing society make the development of a sound personality increasingly important.

As people become more inter-dependent, and as jobs more and more depend on dealing with people (so-called service occupations), effectiveness in social relationships becomes more important.

The common failure of the home and other community agencies to provide a sound basis for personal/social development makes it important for the schools to assume a greater role in promoting such development.

Obj. 2. Define self-concept and describe two ways to measure it.

The term self-concept refers to how the individual thinks and feels about himself or herself.

Methods of measuring self-concept you might have mentioned include:

Describing one's self

Rating oneself on self-concept scales

Using projective tests

Using the "semantic differential" where the individual selects one of a pair of opposites as more descriptive of him than the other

Inferring self-concept from an individual's behavior in situations

Obj. 3. Describe an approach to fostering positive self-concepts through offering students acceptance and approval.

Here are some approaches you might have mentioned:

Give individual attention to students as by greeting them, asking how they are feeling, saying how nice they look, etc.

Never ignore or reject a student, though sometimes you must disapprove the student's behavior.

Offer approval for the student's efforts and achievements.

Obj. 4. State how individualized and mastery-reference instruction can contribute to positive self-concepts.

Individualized instruction means that each student works on tasks specifically chosen for him or her, and each student has a great deal of independence in performing learning tasks. This form of instruction also involves a great deal of individual attention from teachers.

Mastery-referenced instruction means that the student works on tasks where mastery is assured by the choice of tasks and the way they are studied. Experiences of success should foster a positive self-concept.

Obj. 5. Describe how traditional curricula foster negative self-concepts in girls and minority-group members.

Traditional curricular materials present girls as dependent, passive, weak, noncompetitive, etc. while the male is presented as independent, aggressive, competitive, courageous, and emotionally controlled. Women's contributions to our society are greatly under-played. Desirable roles like being doctors or lawyers are treated as though they are exclusively male.

Minority groups in our society are slighted in favor of the dominant middle-class, white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant cultural groups. Traditional texts virtually ignored the contributions of minority groups, particularly blacks, to our society.

Obj. 6. Define achievement motivation and describe one way to measure it.

Achievement motivation refers to the strength of an individual's impulses to accomplish purposes, whether in work, school, sport, or other types of activities.

Some ways of measuring achievement motivation are:

Questionnaires in which the individual completes sentences or selects alternative answers to questions in ways that indicate high or low desire to achieve.

Tests in which the individual selects easy or difficult puzzles.

Tests in which the individual sets high or low goals to be achieved.

Obj. 7. Describe the Achievement Competence Training (ACT) package and indicate how it can contribute to achievement motivation.

ACT teaches children in grades 5-7 to set their own goals, plan how to achieve them, then strive to accomplish what they chose to do. Through learning to succeed in this program, achievement motivation can be strengthened.

Obj. 8. Describe "contingent reinforcement" as a way to motivate students.

This method, also called "behavior modification," calls for giving "positive reinforcement" (attention, approval, praise, or tangible rewards) for desired behavior and for avoiding the use of "negative reinforcement" (criticism, punishment, etc.) for undesired behavior. In other words, it "accentuates the positive."

Obj. 9. List ways in which a student's interest in a school subject can be increased.

The following are among the ways of increasing interest in school subjects.

If school tasks are related to the student's life experiences, they are apt to be more interesting.

Students in individualized instructional programs are apt to be more interested in school because they see it as more personal.

When students are in a program where they are enabled to master learning tasks, they are apt to be more interested in school.

For many students, working on challenging tasks is an important way to become interested in school subjects.

The active, project approach to learning tasks has been found to be more interesting to most students than the lecture/discussion/reading approach.

When students can apply what they have learned in a subject that subject is apt to become more interesting.

When students receive approval or praise for their work in a subject, it is apt to become more interesting.

If a student identifies with a teacher, and that teacher shows personal interest in a school subject, the student is apt to develop increased interest in the subject.

If the student's peer group shows interest in a subject, this interest is apt to rub off on the student.

Obj. 10. Define impulsivity-reflectivity as a dimension of personal behavior.

In their response to tasks, some students are impulsive, reacting quickly without taking the time needed to think through the task and arrive at good answers or solutions; other students are reflective, taking sufficient time to analyze the task and work out an appropriate answer or solution.

Obj. 11. Describe one way of teaching students to be less impulsive.

A method used by Kagan for training first-graders to be less impulsive consisted of requiring impulsive children to delay responding to multiple-choice items 10 or 15 seconds. These children, presented similar tasks from six to eight weeks later, had much longer delay times before responding to an item than prior to the training.

Obj. 12. Describe one way to teach students self-managed learning.

One method of teaching self-direction has been described earlier in this unit. This is the Achievement Competence Training program, in which students learn to set goals for themselves, to plan to reach their goals, and to carry out their plans independently.

Another method of teaching self-managed learning uses the group project method where the group, rather than an individual student, learns to plan and conduct project activities with teacher guidance.

Obj. 13. Describe briefly the categories of Receiving, Responding, and Valuing in the Affective Domain of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Receiving consists of attending to phenomena or stimuli through awareness, positive response to stimuli, and selection or stimuli to attend to when there are competing stimuli.

Responding concerns showing interest in phenomena as through compliance to directions, voluntary response, and finding satisfaction in response.

Valuing involves believing something, preferring something, or being convinced about something.

Obj. 14. Define values and describe one way to teach values to students.

A person's values consist of the feelings, attitudes, wishes, beliefs, or convictions held toward a thing, an event, a person, or an idea. Values may be positive (good, beautiful, etc.) or negative (bad, ugly, etc.).

One way of teaching values is through modeling. Thus, if a teacher is respected by a student, and if the teacher expresses a value, the student is apt to adopt that value.

Another method of teaching moral/ethical values is teaching students to analyze their values as involved in an act of choice, to make a choice and act on it, then to analyze the consequences of the act in terms of the values that were identified.

Obj. 15. Define empathy and describe a way to teach empathy toward members of groups differing from one's own.

Empathy has been defined as "entering into the feeling or spirit of a person; appreciative perception or understanding of others." One does not need to agree with the other person, or wish to be like that person when feeling empathy.

One way of developing empathy is role playing where one tries to experience what it is like to be another person. For example, one can role play being blind to get a feeling of what being blind is like. Or one can role play being rejected because of some characteristic such as having blue eyes (as a way of empathizing with others who are rejected due to skin color, etc.).

Another way to develop empathy for others is through sharing experiences with them. Thus a white person can develop empathy for blacks through sharing cooperative tasks with them.

Obj. 16. Describe the CUTE program for training teachers to work with inner-city children.

This program, developed by an educational laboratory in Kansas City, is called Cooperative Urban Teacher Education. It is a one-semester course for senior education majors. The program teaches the student to understand herself or himself as well as inner-city students' attitudes, anxieties, and prejudices; to understand the students' environment and culture; and to teach students in ways that reflect such understanding of differences. A critical part of the program consists both of teaching in an inner-city school and studying that school's community through observations and participation.

Obj. 17. Describe how a group-project approach can be used to teach students interpersonal competencies.

If a small group of students conducts a project in which all are working toward the same project goals and in which each member of the group is assigned a role that contributes to the group effort, skills in working with others can be learned.

Obj. 18. Describe shortcomings of traditional school programs with respect to students' personal/social development and describe a way to remedy them.

The following is a sampling of faults commonly found in schools:

Rules and punishments that deny the student dignity as a person

Ability grouping that assigns slower learners to the "dumb" groups

Failures to permit students to choose and plan learning tasks

The rejection of minority-group cultures in favor of the middle-class, white culture

A failure to put emphasis on teaching interpersonal skills (with the emphasis being on the student's relationship with the teacher)

One way of correcting such faults is to introduce a program in which students are given a role in deciding what they will study and are permitted to study on an independent basis.

Another approach to making schools better suited to personal/social development is to set up programs (as in alternative high schools) in which students work at jobs in the community as part of the school program.

Training for Leadership in Local
Educational Improvement Programs

UNIT EVALUATION FORM

Unit 6. Personal/Social Development as an Educational Theme, with Related Innovations

Evaluation by_____ Date_____

Position_____ Organization_____

Please give your reactions to this unit by checking and writing in your opinions and recommendations. Returning this form to Research for Better Schools, 1700 Market St., Philadelphia, Pa. 19103 (Attention: Glen Heathers) will help us judge the value of the unit as well as aiding in its revision.

A. Your judgment on the importance of a unit on this topic as training for leadership in local educational improvement programs.

Check: Very High____ High____ Moderate____ Low____ Very Low____

Your comments:

B. Your judgment of the quality of the introductory section of the unit.

Check: Very High____ High____ Moderate____ Low____ Very Low____

Your comments:

C. Your judgment of the adequacy of the set of unit objectives.

Check: Very High____ High____ Moderate____ Low____ Very Low____

What objectives do you recommend omitting? Why?

What objectives do you recommend adding? Why?

Unit Evaluation Form - Con't.

D. Your judgment on the quality of the unit contents.

Check: Very High___ High___ Moderate___ Low___ Very Low___

Your comments:

E. Your judgment on the quality of the unit exercises.

Check: Very High___ High___ Moderate___ Low___ Very Low___

Your comments:

F. Your judgment on the quality of the unit pre- and post-assessments.

Check: Very High___ High___ Moderate___ Low___ Very Low___

Your comments:

G. About how many hours did you take to complete this unit?_____

H. How valuable do you judge this unit to be for training each of the following categories of educational leaders? Please enter the appropriate symbol.
H - Highly valuable. M - Moderately valuable. L - Low value

____ School system central administrators

____ Building principals

____ Curriculum coordinators

____ Field consultants of state education departments

____ Graduate students in administration or supervision

____ Other: